DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 029 967 08 VT 008 366

By-Alschuler, Alfred; And Others

How to Develop Achievement Motivation: A Course Manual for Teachers. Interim Report (First Draft). Section 2.

Achievement Motivation Development Project, Cambridge, Mass.

Spons Agency-Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.

Bureau No-BR-7-1231

Pub Date Feb 69

Grant-OEG-0-8-071231-1747

Note-194p.

EDRS Price MF-$0.75 HC Not Available from EDRS.

Descriptors-Academic Achievement, Case Studies (Education), *Course Content, Course Descriptions, Developmental Programs, Educational Environment, Educational Games, *Inservice Teacher Education, Instructional Innovation, Instructional Materials, *Learning Motivation, *Literature Reviews, Motivation Techniques, Role Playing, Self Actualization, *Student Motivation, Teacher Workshops

Identifiers-Achievement Motivation Development Project

This teacher's manual grows out of a major research project that is attempting to discover the most effective methods of increasing motivation of the adolescent. The methods under study are combined into special courses that are given in schools by teachers, not in laboratories by research scientists nor in clinics by psychotherapists. "Pyschological education" is described as a new educational movement of which the achievement motivation course is a part. The history, goals, methods, and rationale for this movement are discussed in some detail. Also, a fairly detailed course outline is provided to suggest how one course was put together. Chapter 2 is a set of instructions and suggestions put together to allow potential motivation course teachers to experience a course themselves. Chapter 3 builds on this experience by providing a review of the research on achievement motivation. Chapter 4 is a detailed, down-to-earth description of what goes in an achievement motivation course for students. The appendixes include an array of games, case studies, and role plays for achievement motivation courses. A related document is VT 008 373. [Not available in hardcopy due to marginal legibility of original document] (JC)

ED029967

SECTION II OF
INTERIM REPORT
FROM
PROJECT NO. 7-1231
February 1969

SECTION II

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

FIRST DRAFT OF

HOW TO DEVELOP ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION: A Course Manual For Teachers

Interim Paper. (First Draft) Section 2.

by

Alfred Alschuler [illegible]

Diane Tabor

James McIntyre

Caution: This first draft is an incomplete, imperfect manual and should not be used without the direct cooperation of the authors: Achievement Motivation Development Project, 13 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface and Acknowledgements iii

Chapter 1 Psychological Education: Its Origin, Character and Future by Alfred Alschuler 1

A Bibliography on Affective Education, Psychological Education, the Eupsychian Network, Curriculum of Concerns, Personological Education, Synoetics, Personal Learning, etc. by Terry Borton and Alfred Alschuler 21

Chapter 2 Learning the Achievement Motive: A Self-Directed Workshop for Teachers by James McIntyre 40

Chapter 3 Achievement Motivation, Its History and Impact on History by Alfred Alschuler 94

Chapter 4 How to Give an n-Ach Course to Adolescents by Diane Tabor 136

PREFACE and ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This teachers manual grows out of a major research project that is attempting to discover the most effective methods of increasing adolescents' motivation. The methods of motive arousal under study are combined into special courses that are given in schools by teachers, not in laboratories by research scientists, nor in clinics by psychotherapists. As we began to translate our theoretical notions about how to increase motivation into practical classroom methods, we found ourselves engaged in a major curriculum development effort that included teacher training and the creation of many new educational materials. In fact, we were aided substantially in the development of new materials by the teachers we trained to give our experimental courses. Very quickly the demand for these materials and for teacher training in the use of these materials outpaced the slower accumulation of empirical data substantiating the efficacy of the methods. Contrary to the recent spate of books and articles decrying the Gibralter-like conservatism of teachers, we found most of the teachers we met eager to try any new method of increasing students' motivation that held the slightest hope of being effective. On the basis of initial favorable research results it seemed appropriate to try to meet these needs by collecting the materials and by creating a self-instructional manual to help teachers use the materials effectively.

There is a second important reason for preparing this manual. In all psychological research, nay - in all scientific research, the procedures used to generate and measure the results must be specified in enough detail to allow other researchers to replicate the procedures and findings. Specifying the procedures used in short laboratory experiments is comparatively easy. In large-scale social action research where the procedures are whole courses lasting a minimum of 20 hours, describing the procedures is much more complex and difficult and requires extensive treatment in a manual such as this one.

These were the needs that led to the creation of this manual. At the present time, however, there are a number of major reservations we have about this manual that should be considered before anyone attempts to use it for research or for teaching purposes.

1. Training teachers through a book is quite different from training done by the authors of the book. We simply do not know whether our printed words in this manual are a good substitute for a live dialogue with us. In training programs we try to respond to the initiative and spontaneous interests of the trainees, thus encouraging in practice the spirit of independence and innovation we talk about in connection with achievement motivation. In this manual we have been deprived of your spontaneous questions and have been forced to lead all of you step by step down the same training path. We suspect that many of you will feel ambivalent about walking lock step together in the search of initiative, independence, self-reliance and unique accomplishments. This paradox and dilemma obviously has not escaped our notice. We remain skeptical about this manual, and hope that you do too, at least until there is some evidence that it is helpful and effective.

2. The manual is incomplete in the area of our most recent research; namely, the impact of learning climates on motivation and the combination of special learning climates and courses on motivation. The final version of

this manual will include chapter 4 in section II of this interim report, "How to increase motivation through climate and structure", plus several extensive descriptions of restructured mathematics classes, and many suggestions for application to other academic courses. This incompleteness is serious inasmuch as past research indicates clearly that motive arousal courses are not effective for those people who lack the opportunity to use what they have learned. In other words, it would be irresponsible to increase a student's achievement motivation and maintain academic learning situations which neither allow for, nor reward, initiative, innovation, student goal setting, moderate risk taking, etc. This manual lacks stated guidelines to help teachers create appropriate motivational opportunities in classrooms. As our research progresses in the next year, these guidelines and examples will be added.

3. Most teachers and psychotherapists lack the combination of skills necessary for an effective psychological educator. Although teachers are experts in classroom management, in teaching materials, media and techniques, and in certain academic content areas, they generally lack expertise in diagnosis, in the area of developmental theory and in therapeutic techniques. The strengths and weaknesses of psychotherapists are just the opposite of teachers. The entire set of skills and expertise seems necessary for conducting an effective Psychological Education course.

Given these reservations, we eagerly solicit your comments, reactions and suggestions about the manual. We strongly hope you will keep us informed of any use of the manual, and, frankly we hope this draft of the manual will not be used at this time.

After describing what this manual is not, it may be helpful to describe what it is. Chapter 1, "Psychological Education", describes a new educational movement of which the achievement motivation course is a part. The history, goals, methods and rationale for this movement are spelled out in some detail, thus providing an orientation to and perspective on achievement motivation training. The extensive bibliography that follows this chapter contains references to many other psychological education courses that are members of this new educational family.

Chapter 2 is a set of instructions and suggestions for an autonomous group of teachers to take themselves through an achievement motivation course. We hope that in this way teachers will be able to obtain an experience-based understanding of achievement motivation.

Chapter 3 builds on this experience by providing a review of the research on what achievement motivation is, what people with high achievement motivation are like, and in what contexts achievement motivation seems most useful. This review should help in conceptualizing the experiences generated though chapter 2.

Chapter 4 is a detailed, down-to-earth description of what goes into an achievement motivation course for students, why, how and when. In a sense this chapter is like a description of a banquet buffet table. The various "courses" are presented in a way to entice you, but the final choice of the delicacies for your unique meal is left up to you.

In the appendix we have tried to do several things. First we have presented the existing array of games, case studies, role plays, etc. for achievement motivation courses. This creates the opportunity and necessity of your making choices. Also, there are a sufficient number of examples to stimulate your creative adaptations and modifications of these materials. Second, we have provided a fairly detailed course outline that suggests how one course was put together. In subsequent versions of this manual we will include several additional outlines to examplify some of the possible variations.

We are indebted to many people. Professor David C. McClelland has provided continued encouragement and consultation. Many students at the Harvard Graduate School of Education have provided astute criticisms and creative contributions. In the forefront of these students are Janet Cohen, Gordon Alpert, Peter Budryk, Michael Dole, Dick Roman, and Wendy Gollub. The teachers at Arlington High School, Cambridge Friends School, and Broad Meadows Junior High School made the research possible and thus this manual as well. In particular we thank, Bob Hindmarsh, Steve Solomon, John Lennon, Antonette di Loretto, Harry Beede, Tom Regan, Scott Newell, Joseph Long, Althea Sawyer, Charles Hickey, Marilyn Robbins, Thomas Callahan, Mary Bozoian, Jo Ann Conroy, Stella Krupka, Margaret Hoyle. In addition we are indebted to Judy Musgrave and Nancy Raeburn, who coordinated the production of these materials.

With these cautions, previews and thank-yous, we now invite you to share our experiences, goals and methods.

Alfred Alschuler
Diane Tabor
James McIntyre

Cambridge, Mass.
September, 1968

Chapter 1

CHAPTER 1 PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION: ITS ORIGIN, CHARACTER AND FUTURE.

by Alfred Alschuler

At the joint frontier of Psychology and Education a new movement is emerging that attempts to promote psychological growth directly through educational courses. Psychologists are shifting their attention away from remedial help for the mentally ill to the goal of enhancing human potential in normal individuals. Educators on the other hand are beginning to accept these courses along with the unique content and pedogogy as appropriate for schools. At present there are Psychological Education courses designed to increase achievement motivation, awareness and excitement, creative thinking, interpersonal sensitivity, joy, self-reliance, self-esteem, self-understanding, self-actualization, moral development, identity, non-verbal communication, body awareness, value clarity, meditative processes and other aspects of ideal adult functioning.[1] Some of these courses have been taught experimentally in schools although most of them have been developed and offered in other settings such as industrial training programs, Peace Corps training and private educational institutes. More recently, the shock of assassinations and riots is doing for Psychological Education what Sputnik did to spur the new academic curricula in the last ten years. Psychological Educators who have worked in isolated independence are beginning to meet together to foster mutual collaboration.[2] New centers of Psychological Education are emerging that offer these courses to the general public.[3] A number of large research and development projects have been funded to introduce this type of education into schools,[4] and recent national publicity (Howard, 1968) undoubtedly will increase the demand from students and parents for these courses. The Psychological Education movement clearly is gaining momentum.

---

[1] Attached to this paper is a relatively complete bibliography of Psychological Education articles, books, films, journals, organizations and people.

[2] The first conference on "Affective Education" was held in August 1968 in Sausalito, California, under the sponsorship of the American Association of Humanistic Psychology and Esalen Institute.

[3] The most well known organizations are Esalen Institute in Big Sur, California; National Training Laboratories in Bethel, Maine; Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, La Jolla, California. For a list of 33 other organizations, see section III of the Bibliography.

Paradoxically, Psychological Education as a discipline is unorganized and inchoate. For the most part, psychological educators remain highly individualistic innovators within the field. Despite its strong ideological roots in the psychoanalytic tradition, this movement is viewed by many professionals as a brand new fad of unknown origins. In spite of the many unique goals, procedures and trainer skills common to all Psychological Education, there is no graduate program in the country to train psychological educators. In short, this burgeoning educational movement is not yet recognized as a legitimate discipline.

IDEOLOGY AND ORIGINS

Like past ideologies of personality change, Psychological Education grows out of a vision of human potential. This vision, and the methods of change associated with it, can be understood clearly only when put in the perspective of past ideologies.

In pre-Christian Greece, those individuals who could not get along in the world, whom we would call "mentally ill" today, were viewed as possessing divine inspiration. Visions were not insane, but prophetic. These divinely inspired souls were feared and respected, not pitied, punished or burned as they were several centuries later. Certainly the medicine man who spent his time collecting herbs and smelling urine was not fit to touch the divinely possessed. Dictated by these beliefs, a sanctuary at Epidaurus was created in the 6th century BC that compared favorably with most health resorts of the 20th century. The treatment was lavish for those individuals who were inhabited by the deities and could not function well in society (Henry, in Zilboorg, 1941).

---

[4] Cooperative Program of Education Development (COPED) sponsored by National Training Laboratories and the National Education Association: Achievement Motivation Development Project sponsored by The Office of Education; Foundation grants to Western Behavioral Science Institute to introduce "basic encounter" techniques into a school system; a grant to Esalen to support the introduction of sensitivity training in elementary, junior and senior high schools.

With the rise of Christian institutions and the belief in a chain of communication between God, priests and man, those people seen previously as divinely inspired came to be seen as representatives of the devil, on a plane with the priests but direct challanges to the priests' God-given power on earth. Thus, it was incumbent upon men to demonstrate the superior strength of God by casting out the demons from the unfortunate bodies of the bedevilled. The resultant treatment consisted of beatings, collar harnesses in dark damp cells, starvation diets and failing all else, burning at the stake.[5] These treatment procedures were dictated by a vision of goodness and evil as surely as Plato's 50-year educational program was dictated by his vision of the wise civil servant ruler and what was necessary to produce such a philosopher-king.

Despite several crusading attempts, demonology and its associated restorative methods were prevalent through the latter part of the 19th century. It remained to physicians to claim for medicine what had previously been religious concerns. In the process of asserting that "madness" was an organic "disease" and thus "curable", physicians brought with them a new ideology and method. The assumption was made that a science of mental illness must begin with a nosology, a classification of diseases, similar to the classification of elements in chemistry and other physical diseases. When these new disease entities had been identified, research into the organic causes could begin. As a result, physicians studied alchoholism, aphasias, paralyses and attributed them to such things as the lever actions of the limbs, disturbance of the muscle sense of the limbs, organic brain disease.

---

[5] This and the following medical history is based on A History of Medical Psychology, Gregory Zilboorg, W. W. Norton & Sons, Inc. New York, 1941)

In particular, Emil Kraepelin's classification system brought to fruition the establishment of mental illness as an ideology and as a legitimate branch of medicine. We are heirs to this revolution. The care of the mentally ill is entrusted to doctors. The mentally ill are placed in hospitals and there is widespread use of healing chemicals. Obtaining case histories, an art perfected by Kraepelin, remains a standard procedure. Legally required diagnostic labels given to the hospitalized mentally ill bear the stamp of Kraepelin's formative thinking. So pervasive is this thinking that it requires of us almost a Copernican revolution of thought even to consider the possibility that strange mental states and visions may not be "disease symptoms" needing a cure. Our belief is firmly rooted in Kraepelin's scientific ideology, just as incarceration and punishment were methods emanating from deep-seated beliefs in demonology.

Psychoanalysis, the second psychiatric revolution, was a child of this scientific ideology. One of Freud's chief contributions was to persuade others that "mental illness" could have psychological as well as physical origins, that forgotten psychological traumas could leave permanent psychological scars and debilitation as surely as physical traumas, (e.g. broken limbs) if not treated, would leave physical debilitation and scars. Further, Freud showed that a psychological talking "cure" was possible if the "patient" re-experienced the original trauma and worked it through, much as an operation opens the body to correct the source of a disease so that it can heal properly. Because Freud believed that psychoanalysis was a method of learning about one's self as well as a method of medical treatment through emotional re-education, he recommended that experts from a number of disciplines be trained to do psychoanalysis (Freud, 1927). However, the medical doctors who brought psychoanalysis to this country have kept it tightly locked within their profession to be used solely as a healing technique.

The psychoanalytic ideology has stimulated many developments in the last fifty years, two of which specifically paved the way for Psychological Education. First, numerous additional methods of affective re-education have been created ranging from variants on the "talking cure" (client-centered therapy, direct analysis, sector therapy, play therapy), to varieties of group therapy (marital, family, ward, psychodrama), to complete environmental control (kibbutzim, "brainwashing"), to the many short exercises designed to promote a specific, limited affective experience (game simulations, role plays, programmed units). In addition, learning theory had developed to the point where numerous techniques are available to help people systematically unlearn certain behaviors, and learn other healthier behaviors (Wolpe & Lazarus, 1967). In short, a large repertoire of methods exists besides psychoanalysis to foster affective education and behavior modification.

A second development was stimulated in reaction to Kraepelin's and Freud's exclusive attention to mental illness. Most psychiatrists and psychologists were seldom at a loss for words to describe even the subtlest nuances of mental illness or to hypothesize about the origin and vicissitudes of psychoses. However psychiatrists and psychologists were considerably less eloquent when asked to describe "mental health", maturity or ideal psychological functioning. Bound to the ideology of "mental illness", "disease" and "cure", mental health was either the absence of psychological symptoms, or "the ability to love and work", a definition which made mental health inaccessible to the very young and the very old. Beginning with Carl Jung's descriptions of "individuation" (Jung, 1959, Progoff, 1953) attempts were made to characterize the ideal states of human development (Allport, 1961; Erikson, 1959; Jahoda, 1958; Maslow, 1962; and Piaget, 1960). Whether the description was a list of traits, states, healthy crisis resolutions, or capacity for cognitive operations, the rationale for the descriptions was the same. The impetus was to fill a gap by describing in detail the ideal end states of human development.

After the articulation of what lay at the positive end of the spectrum of human functioning, it was a natural step to use the existing repertoire of change techniques to promote those ideal states. However, Psychological Education courses were not created and implemented so logically, so systematically or so simply. Although Psychological Education was an immediate, reasonable and enticing possibility, until recently the need for this new approach to promoting growth had not crystalized within the community of psychotherapists and the community of educators.

Psychotherapists have begun to realize that their traditional methods and settings are inadequate to deal with the magnitude of psychological problems in society. The extent of violence in the streets stands in bold defiance of the inefficient, long term, one-to-one theraputic relationships that take place in small offices and safe hospital rooms. The number of existing and potential psychotherapists is hopelessly inadequate because the problems are not just among the mentally ill and because any type of remediation ipso facto is too late. From this perspective, psychotherapy is not so much wrong as basically inappropriate to alleviate widespread racism, aggression, interpersonal insensitivity, moral irresponsibility and non-self-actualization. More efficient methods are needed to promote psychological growth, thus preventing these human problems from occurring and making remediation unnecessary. New settings are needed that reach the larger population. In the current climate of urgency it is not surprising that psychologists are looking seriously to the educational system because of its universal coverage, its large source of potential psychological educators and the appropriate emphasis on learning and personal growth.

Conversely, educators are turning to psychologists, not for additional help in increasing the rate of knowledge acquisition, but to find out what more schools can do about prejudice, violence, lack of motivation and uncurious, uncreative students. The riots and assassinations have focused attention on these problems and sharpened the realization that schools are doing almost nothing to prepare students vocationally and psychologically for life after high school. Thirty per cent, or 15 million of the 50 million students in school will not graduate from high school. This staggering number of dropouts will enter the labor market unprepared. A total of 40 million students will not complete college and only six million of these students will have had any significant amount of vocational education. For the vast majority of students, what they are learning in school is not so much wrong as basically inappropriate.

It is increasingly clear, however, that more vocational training in particular, or better curricula, teacher training and physical facilities in general will not be sufficient. The Coleman Report on Equality of Educational Opportunity (1966) has shown that student attitudes towards themselves and about the responsiveness of the world to their efforts are more strongly related to academic gains than differences in curricula, facilities or teacher training. In addition to vocational training, schools will have to take greater responsibility for promoting the growth of attitudes conducive to learning and to continued psychological growth. In a recent study of 440,000 high school students across the country, the American Institutes for Research concluded that schools fail to help students develop a sense of personal responsibility for their own educational, personal and social development, and that schools must prepare students more fully for citizenship and mature adulthood (Flanagan, 1967). Thus from a teacher's point of view, there is double reason and double gain from courses designed explicitly to promote aspects of psychological growth: increased learning in school and more effective, socialized self-actualizing adults after school.

In the last ten years individual psychotherapists and teachers working independently have created a number of prototype Psychological Education courses, none of which has been widely introduced into public education. Because the demand for these courses is increasing, it is important to examine carefully the goals and current status of Psychological Education.

GOALS OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION

The goals of psychological education courses sound vague, varied, overlapping, universal and highly desirable: creativity, joy, awareness, sensitivity. On the one hand this pleasant semantic confusion reflects the absence of a single definitive description of ideal psychological (or "eupsychian") states. On the other hand, the words are somewhat misleading. As in social science research, what really counts is the operational definition of the goals. In Psychological Education the course procedures are the best clues to the course goals since it is through these procedures that the desired psychological states are fostered in the course. For example, Outward Bound courses attempt to promote "self reliance" (Katz and Kolb, 1968). Most of the course exercises ask students to engage in physically difficult tasks like scaling a cliff or swimming 50 yards underwater in one breath. Outward Bound courses usually end with a solo survival experience in the wilderness in which the trainee lives off the land. Procedurally, "self-reliance" is defined as mastering these challenging physical tasks. Similarly, it is possible to clarify the goals of other Psychological Education courses by focusing on their procedures. When this is done, four common eupsychian goals emerge quite clearly.

First, most courses contain procedures to develop a constructive dialogue with one's own fantasy life. In Synetics training, a creativity course, students are asked to "make the strange familiar" by fantasizing themselves inside a strange object, or to "make the familiar strange" by fantasizing about a common object (Gordon, 1961). In other creativity courses, remote associations are encouraged in order to attain a new, useful and creative perspective on some problem (Allen, 1962; Brown, 1964; Parnes & Harding, 1962; Olten, 1966; Osborn, 1963; Uraneck, 1963; Whiting, 1958). In other Psychological Education courses students are taken on guided tours of day dreams and night dreams and on fantasy trips into their own body (Perls, Hefferline & Goodman, 1965; Schutz, 1968). In achievement motivation courses students are encouraged to fantasize about doing things exceptionally well and are taught how to differentiate between achievement imagery and plain old task imagery. Later in the course these achievement images are tied to reality through careful planning and projects (Alschuler, 1967; Kolb, 1965; McClelland, 1965). These eupsychian procedures often bring previously ignored aspects of one's personality into awareness. Usually this is a joyful,enhancing experience in contrast to psychoanalytic dream analysis and free association which are oriented to uncovering unconscious conflicts. The implication of these eupsychian procedures is that most adults don't make constructive use of their fantasy life and have forgotten how to enjoy fantasy in a childlike but healthy way.

A second set of extremely common procedures involves nonverbal exercises, such as silent theater improvisations, free expression dance movements, meditation, the exaggeration of spontaneous body movements and a wide variety of games. Often it is easier to understand psychological concepts when they are learned motorically rather than simply comprehended intellectually. For example, in achievement motivation courses, the concept of "moderate risk taking" is taught through a darts game in which the student must bid on his performance and only "wins" when he makes his bid. A very low bid earns few points while a very high bid is nearly impossible to make. The game experience subsequently is generalized to other life situations. In sensitivity training and encounter groups, non-verbal exercises are used to increase channels of communication. Some personal feelings can be expressed more effectively in motions than in words. Other times non-verbal activities are used because they increase one's expressive vocabulary and are simply joyful experiences. As with constructive fantasizing, proponents of these methods believe that this type of expression, communication and learning is underdeveloped in most people (McClelland, 1965; Moore, 1960; Murphy, 1967; Howard, 1968; Newberg, undated; Perls, Hefferline and Goodman, 1965; Ruesch and Kees, 1956; Schutz, 1968; Spolin, 1963).

A third set of typical procedures focuses on developing and exploring individuals' emotional responses to the world. In most courses, how people feel is considered more important than what they think about things. Without these emotional peak experiences ranging from laughter and exhilaration to tears and fear, the instructor is likely to consider the course a failure. For example, if an adolescent is scaling a cliff in an Outward Bound course and does not feel any fear, he will not increase his self confidence through his accomplishment. Similarly, techniques in Sensitivity Training foster intense emotional confrontation with other group members. Trainees are encouraged to express their feelings openly and honestly. They learn to recognize their anger, for example, and to resolve it maturely, rather than allowing it to create continued inner turmoil. In Achievement Motivation courses strong group feelings are developed to help support the individual in whatever he chooses to do well. In all of these courses there is a shared belief that affect increases meaningful learning and that the capacity for the full range of affective responses is a crucial human potentiality often underdeveloped in adults. As a result, a wide range of techniques to enhance affect have been created (Borton, 1966 & 1967; Bradford, 1964; Litwin, 1966; Peterson, undated; Schutz, 1968; Yablonsky, 1967).

A fourth characteristic set of procedures emphasizes the importance of living fully and intensely "here and now."

The emphasis takes many forms. In Gestalt awareness training the goal is philosophically explicit (Perls, Hefferline and Goodman, 1965). In most courses it is subtle and implicit. Usually psychological education courses are held in retreat settings which cut people off from past obligations and future commitments for brief periods of time. The isolated resort settings dramatize the "here-and now"opportunities. In general there is little emphasis on future "homework" or past personal history as an explanation for behavior. A vivid example is Synanon, a total environment program for addicts, which promotes "self actualization" and in the process cures addiction. Synanon requires the addict to kick drugs immediately upon entering the program. Other "bad" behavior which stands in the way of self actualization is pointed out as it occurs. Historical explanations for bad behavior are considered excuses and are not tolerated (Yablonsky, 1967). In other Psychological Education programs the games, exercises, group process, etc. are model opportunities to explore, discover and try out new behavior here and now. Most of these courses consider references to the past and future as escapes from the present opportunity. The assumption is that if a person can't change here and now, where the conditions for growth are optimal, he is not likely to continue growing outside and after the course.

These four eupsychian states are clearly in the Freudian tradition. The critical moment of growth in psychoanalysis occurs in the cure of the transference neurosis. The patient has an intense emotional realization of how he has transferred his childhood irrational fantasies to the here-and-now theraputic context. He acts out his neurosis in the theraputic relationship. The new awareness stemming from the catharsis allows the patient to change in meaningful ways first in the theraputic relationship and then outside. These same elements exist in most psychological education courses, but they are transformed. Students discover the creative power of their fantasy life, not the destructive aspects of unconsciously motivated fantasy. Highly sensitive, understanding communication is experienced by attending to non-verbal cues, whereas in psychoanalysis, behavioral tics and "acting out" are probed for their neurotic messages. Intense affect is more often ecstatic than angry and unhappy as in theraputic experiences. In both types of change procedure the assumption is made that long-term change results from the changes which occur in the here-and-now relationship.

These four typical goals imply a broad cultural diagnosis. It is as if the creators of psychological education courses said that most people are highly verbal, future-oriented doers who place extreme value on analytic rationality. The result is that other aspects of human potential are left undeveloped or are destructively expressed. What is needed is the growth of healthier, more sensitive multi-level communication, the integration of irrational fantasies into constructive responses and greater capacity of estatic emotional experiences. The relation between Psychological Education goals and the current social problems is a key reason why it is important to introduce these courses in schools on a widespread basis. A person who has developed sensitive non-verbal communication does not express himself hatefully or violently.

The goals and content of these courses differ from existing academic and vocational courses in several important ways. Psychological knowledge is experiential knowledge in contrast to academic knowledge (mathematics, science, history) which is appropriately abstract. Psychological knowledge is firmly rooted in the person's affect, fantasy, and actions, and is not merely deposited in the student's internal data bank. This is the difference between knowing about the revolutions of 1848 and experiencing the anxiety and uncertainty of changing a life style quickly, as when a parent dies or when one has an accident. It is the difference between knowing probability statistics and taking action when the odds are 50:50 for success. Obviously, psychological knowledge is as important for a student's repertoire as his academic knowledge or vocational skills.

There are also some similarities in psychological, academic and vocational goals. Like foreign languages, science, history and mathematics, psycholgoical education teaches a new vocabularly and pattern of thought. Like vocational courses and athletics, psychological education courses teach new action skills through "exercises", "games", "role plays" etc. And, like psychotherapy, psychological education is concerned with affect. These statements are straight forward and unremarkable. But, consider for a moment how many courses attempt to promote a synthesis of all three. Typical high school curricula are divided into academic "thought" courses and vocational"action" courses (typing, shorthand, auto mechanics, etc.). It is not possible to divide psychological knowledge into separate compartments. For example, "Interpersonal Sensitivity" is a way of thinking, feeling and acting in ongoing relationships with other people. Psychological Education courses attempt to create and enhance this synthesis within the course itself in order to foster its occurrence outside and after the course.

In contrast to typical school goals, Psychological Education courses aim for long-term life changes, not short-term gains in mastery. More precisely, Psychological Education attempts to increase long-term "operant" behavior as well as respondent behavior. Operant behavior is voluntary, seemingly spontaneous and certainly not required by the situation. What a person does with his leisure time is an indication of his operant behavior since it stems from stable internal cues and needs few external cues to come forth. Respondent behavior, whether it is affective, cognitive or motoric requires external cues and incentives before it will occur, just as an examination question brings forth respondent knowledge that otherwise probably would not have been demonstrated.

In practice, most school learning calls for respondent behavior: multiple choice and true-false questions, reading assigned chapters, solving a given set of mathematics problems correctly, or writing an essay to a prescribed theme. Interestingly, respondent measures of learning do not predict long-term operant behavior very well; perhaps because when school is over there are very few people who follow a person around defining the problems, presenting test questions and evaluating the response (McClelland, 1967; McClelland, et al 1958). Success and fulfillment in work, marriage, interpersonal relations and leisure time, result more from operant than respondent behavior. Educational theorists have begun to draw attention to the importance of teaching which results in operant, voluntary, internalized, student behavior (Bloom, 1956; Kranthwohl, 1956). However, the key academic and vocational success criteria very likely will continue to be end of semester tests, standardized achievement tests and other short-term respondent measures that fail to predict what the student will remember later and whether he will choose spontaneously to use what he learned.

The goals of psychological education courses will change in the future as a result of many influences. As in the past, some new courses will be developed for specific institutional needs. For example, industry was one of the chief financial backers for courses in creativity training because they wanted to increase the patent output of their research scientists. Recently the Peace Corps has commissioned the development of self-assessment workshops to replace the psychiatric, illness-oriented diagnosis that has existed in Peace Corps training programs to date. It is easy to envision other new courses: identity formation courses for Upward Bound adolescents; individuation courses for elderly men and women; training in the "helping relationship" for parents, supervisors, teachers and coaches. Although these courses will have different problem foci, most likely they will include the enchancement of fantasy, affect, and non-verbal communication in intense course experiences that develop eupsychian capacities.

It is also possible that the dramatically increased interest in these courses will breed psychological hucksterism. At present there is little long-term outcome research to prove, disprove, or improve the efficacy of the courses. There are no formal training institutions for psychological educators, no certification boards, and no professional organization specifically to promote and monitor the quality of training. In the face of growing demands for courses, these lacks are serious and the future of Psychological Education must include some attention to them if the movement is to become a viable and effective discipline available to the general population.

THE FUTURE OF PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION AS A DISCIPLINE

The most serious obstacle to the managed growth of the movement into discipline is the absence of definitive descriptions of eupsychian states. As a vision of what is ideal and possible in human nature, these descriptions must be persuasive and procedural. Many persuasive models have been proposed, but few of them can be translated readily into course procedures and measurable long-term operant outcomes. Thus, both systematic course development to fill existing gaps and basic research on effectiveness are inhibited. However, even though a comprehensive set of goals does not exist, it is possible to identify two of the most important research questions: Do Psychological Education courses have significantly greater long-term impact than other forms of therapy and education? If so, what makes the courses more effective? Very little long-term outcome research on these courses exists at present.

One prototype research effort has been conducted and illustrates how outcome research can lead to the development of Psychological Education as a discipline. McClelland and Winter (1969, in press) studied the three-year impact of a series of

Achievement Motivation courses given to adult businessmen. McClelland and Winter's first principal finding demonstrated that achievement motivation training stimulated greater entrepreneurial activity than normal maturation and more than other current types of executive training programs (Effectiveness was measured in terms of promotions, pay raises, major new investments, etc.). However, the course was effective only for those men who were in a position to take initiative on their job; they had appropriate entrepreneurial opportunities. This raises many new questions about existing Psychological Education courses. Do students only show change and growth in the training settings where the opportunities for growth are accentuated? Should initial diagnoses be made in order to accept only those trainees whose life situations afford continued opportunities to develop what they have learned? Should Psychological Educators also assume some responsibility for changing the institutions and settings outside of the course which promote or inhibit growth? Should Psychological Educators take responsibility for re-structuring academic and vocational courses to provide clear opportunities for initiative, responsibility, achievement motivation, interpersonal sensitivity, creativity? Some educators have begun to move in this direction, but without combining psychological education courses with the new school opportunities (Featherstone, 1967; Yeomans, 1967). What is the long-term effect on motivation, creativity, sensitivity, etc., if only new opportunities are provided?

McClelland and Winter also present evidence identifying what course inputs are responsible for the long-term changes. Of the many achievement motivation courses they studied, the most effective courses included four types of inputs: (1) Procedures which taught the thought and action characteristics of people with high achievement motivation; procedures which provided (2) affective and (3) cognitive supports for whatever change the person desired; and (4) procedures which focused on making careful long term plans. This last input often is absent from other Psychological Education courses, in which the "here-and-now" emphasis plus the diffuse nature of the long-term goals seem to preclude this type of goal setting. The only exceptions at present are some creativity training programs in industry which have proved highly effective in generating new inventions (Parnes, 1967). Like achievement motivation training,the long-term goals are always clearly in mind during the course. Apparently the combination of "here-and-now" course excitement and commitment to long-term goals are necessary for maximum effectiveness.

There are many difficulties in doing the valuable type of long-term outcome research conducted by McClelland and Winter. What educator can wait three years to find out which inputs he should use in his next course? The feedback loop is too long. Design and control problems in "change" research are extreme. Operant outcome criteria are particularly difficult to measure and the research is expensive. A critical breakthrough in facilitating this type of research would consist of identifying those changes during or just after the course that predicted long-term growth. This would shorten the feedback loop and quicken research progress. A search for these short-term predictors raises an important theoretical question. Do the desired eupsychian states simply increase in frequency after the course is over, or do basic transformations take place much as children move from concrete to formal operational thinking over a period of years? If the desired eupsychian states are reached through basic transformations, then the course experiences would not bear a one-to-one correspondence to the desired long-term outcome. This developmental approach would require a basic shift in the short-term, here-and-now course goals.

Developmental theories can be as important to the creation and evaluation of Psychological Education courses as are better descriptions of eupsychian states. For example, Jung argues that

"Individuation" occurs as conscious and unconscious functions are developed and synthesized, i.e., perceiving through sensation and intuition and evaluating through affect and analysis (Jung, 1959; Progoff, 1953). When these four functions are equally well developed, mandala symbols from the collective unconscious begin to emerge in dreams and creative art work indicating the unique unity the person has attained. There is a well-validated diagnostic test which measures the relative development of these four functions. Appropriate Psychological Education courses could be given to enhance those functions which were least developed. If successful, and if Jung was correct, mandala symbols should emerge more frequently in fantasy productions. In general there is the possibility of developmental theory providing a framework for the proper sequencing of the courses to maximize psychological growth during the entire life cycle.

This eventual possibility stands in sharp contrast to the atheoretical existing collection of unsequenced psychological education courses. Individual innovators have created these courses and contributed to the momentum of the Psychological Education movement. The increasing public interest testifies to their success and guarantees that the courses will not expire from lack of interest in the near future. However, what was needed to inaugurate the movement is not what is needed now. If this burgeoning educational movement remains undisciplined, it is likely that accumulating long-term failures of these courses eventually will counterbalance whatever short-term excitement they may generate. These courses could become merely opportunities for affluent citizens to take happy mental "trips" one week in every fifty-two. On the other hand there is hope that these courses may be introduced in public education,on a national scale, soundly constructed, effectively taught and properly sequenced. This requires long-term institutional support. Thus, the future of psychological education will be strongly influenced by how soon and how extensively university programs in education and psychology discipline the movement by bringing to it their inclinations to theory, their competence in research and their facilities for training legitimized Psychological Educators

A BIBLIOGRAPHY ON

AFFECTIVE EDUCATION, PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION, THE EUPSYCHIAN NETWORK, CURRICULUM OF CONCERNS, PERSONOLOGICAL EDUCATION, SYNOETICS, PERSONAL LEARNING, ETC.

Compiled by: Alfred Alschuler and Terry Borton[*]
Harvard Graduate School of Education
Cambridge, Mass., Summer 1968

This bibliography lists people, programs, books, projects, research reports, films and theoretical articles in the common area described above. Undoubtedly it is incomplete, but it is the most comprehensive list we know of at present. A number of entries may be of doubtful appropriateness for this bibliography. However, we attempted to be comprehensive rather than to exclude all borderline items. If you have additions to make, please send them to us at 13 Kirkland St., Cambridge, Mass., 02138.

[*] Our thanks to Miss Margaret Ham, who tracked down many sources and helped organize this bibliography.

I. BOOKS AND ARTICLES

Allen, M.S., Morphological Creativity, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1962.

Allinsmith, Wesley and Goethals, George W., The Role of Schools in Mental Health, New York, Basic Books, Inc., 1962.

Alschuler, Alfred S., "The Achievement Motivation Development Project: A Summary and Review," Harvard Research and Development Center, Harvard Graduate School of Education, 1967 (available through Publications Office, Longfellow Hall, Appian Way, Cambridge, Mass. 02138).

Alschuler, Alfred S., Psychological Education, mimeographed chapters of a book available from Peabody House, 13 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Mass., 02138.

Anderson, R.C., "Can First Graders Learn an Advanced Problem-solving Skill?" Journal of Educational Psychology, (1965) 56 (6); 283-294.

American Association for Curriculum Development, "Perceiving, Behaving, Becoming: A New Focus for Education" (collected convention proceedings) Copies available from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

American Psychologist, (June, 1966) 21 (6) (Whole issue is devoted to Community Mental Health issues, practices, and possibilities, Note: Smith, B., "Explorations in Competence: A Study of Peace Corps Teachers in Ghana," pp. 555-567.

Ashton-Warner, Sylvia, Teacher, New York, Simon and Schuster, 1963.

Assagioli, Roberto, Psychosynthesis, New York, Hobbs, Dorman, and Co., 1965.

Belke, M.F., Being and Becoming (Four volumes - Encounter, Identity, Involvement, Commitment), Group Guidance Series, Milwaukee, The Bruce Publishing Co., 1966.

Bessell, Harold, "The Content is the Medium: The Confidence is the Message" Psychology Today, (Jan., 1968) 1 (8); 32-35+.

Bettelheim, Bruno, Love is Not Enough, Glencoe, Ill., The Free Press, 1950.

"Bionics", Journal of Creative Behavior, (Winter, 1967) 2 (1); 52-57.

Black, Algernon, The Young Citizen, The Story of the Encampment for Citizenship, New York, Frederick Ungar Publishing Co., 1962.

Bloom, Benjamin S. (Ed.), Taxonomy of Educational Objectives; Handbook I: Cognitive Domain, New York, David McKay Co., 1956.

Kranthwohl, David R., Benjamin S. Bloom, and Bertram B. Masia, Taxonomy of Educational Objectives, Handbook II: Affective Domain, New York, David McKay Co., 1956.

Borton, Terry, Affective Readers for the First Grade (About 20 books to be published by Addison-Wesley in 1969).

Borton, Terry, Reach, Touch and Teach: Student Concerns and Education (To be published in 1969)

Borton, Terry, "Reaching the Culturally Deprived," Saturday Review, (Feb. 19,1966) 49; 77-78+

Borton, Terry, "What Turns Kids On?" Saturday Review, (April 15, 1967) 50; 72-74+.

Bradford, Leland P., Jack R. Gibb and Kenneth D. Benne (Eds.) T-Group Theory and The Laboratory Method, New York, Wiley and Sons, 1964.

Brown, George, " A Plague on Both Your Houses" (Available from Esalen, Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California).

Brown, G. I., "An Experiment in the Teaching of Creativity," School Review, (1964) 72 (4); 437-450.

Brugental, James, The Search for Authenticity, New York, Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1965.

Cantrill, Hadley, The Pattern of Human Concerns, New Brunswick, New Jersey, Rutgers University Press, 1965.

Carnegie, Dale, How to Win Friends and Influence People, New York, Simon and Schuster, 1937.

Coleman, James S., Equality of Educational Opportunity, United States Office of Education, OE 38001, 1966.

Crawford, R.P., Direct Creativity, Wells, Vermont, Frazer Publishing Co., 1964.

Drews, Elizabeth M., "Self Actualization: A New Focus for Education" in the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development 1966 Yearbook, Learning and Mental Health in the School, Washington, D.C., National Education Association, 1966, pp. 99-127.

Drews, Elizabeth M. and D. Knowlton, "The Being and Becoming Series for College-Bound Students," Audiovisual Instruction, (Jan., 1963) 8 ;29-32.

Erikson, Erik, "Identity and the Life Cycle," Psychological Issues, (1959) 1 (1); 1-171.

Fantini, Mario and Gerald Weinstein, The Disadvantaged, New York, Harper and Row, 1968.

Fantini, Mario and Gerald Weinstein, Making the Urban School Work, New York, Holt, Reinhart, and Co., 1968.

Featherstone, Joseph, "How Children Learn," The New Republic, (Sept. 2, 1967) 157; 17-21 (About the Leichester Schools).

Featherstone, Joseph, "Schools for Children; What's Happening in British Classrooms," The New Republic, (August 19, 1967) 157; 17-21.

Featherstone, Joseph, "Teaching Children to Think," The New Republic, (Sept. 9, 1967) 157; 15-19.

Goodman, Paul, Compulsory Mis-Education, New York, Horizon Press, 1964.

Goodman, Paul, Growing Up Absurd, New York, Random House, 1960.

Goodwin, H.F., "Work Simplification" (a documentary series of articles), Factory Management and Maintenance, (July, 1958).

Gordon, William J.J., Synectics: The Development of Creative Capacity, New York, Harper and Row, 1961.

Gowan, John C., George D. Demosk and E. Paul Torrance (Eds.); Creativity: Its Educational Implications, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1967.

Handbook of Staff Development and Human Relations Training: Materials Developed for Use in Africa, published by National Training Laboratories, Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, associated with NEA, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036.

Harvey, O.J. (Ed.), Experience, Structure, and Adaptability, New York, Springer, 1966. Note: Hunt, David, "A Conceptual Systems Change Model and its Application to Education", pp. 277-302,

Hentoff, Nat, Our Children Are Dying, New York, Viking Press, 1966.

Hobbs, N., "Helping Disturbed Children's Psychological and Ecological Strategies," American Psychologist, (1966) 21 (1).

Holt, John, How Children Fail, New York, Pitman, 1964 (Paperback by Dell Publishing Co.).

Holt, John, How Children Learn, New York, Pitman, 1967.

Jacob, Phillip E., Changing Values in College, New York, Harper and Row, 1957.

Katz, Richard and James Fademan, (Eds.) Transformations: The Meaning of Personal Growth. (To be published in 1969).

Katz, Richard and David A. Kolb, "Outward Bound and Education for Personal Growth." (Mimeographed paper available from David Kolb, Sloan School of Management, MIT, Cambridge, Mass.).

Kelly, George, The Psychology of Personal Constructs, Vols. I and II, New York, Norton and Co., 1955.

Kepner, C.H. and B.B. Tregoe, The Rational Manager, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1965.

Klein, Allan, Role Playing in Leadership Training and Group Problem Solving, New York, Association Press, 1956.

Kohl, Herbert, 36 Children, New York, New American Library, 1967.

Kohlberg, Lawrence, "Development of Moral Character and Moral Ideology," in Hoffman, Martin L., and Hoffman, Lois W. (Eds.), Review of Child Development, Vol. 1, New York,Russell Sage Foundation, 1964, pp. 383-431.

Kohlberg, Lawrence, "Moral Education in the Schools: A Developmental View," The School Review, (Spring, 1966) 74 (1); 1-30.

Kolb, David A., "Achievement Motivation Training for Under-Achieving High School Boys," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, (Dec., 1965) 2 (6); 783-792.

Leonard, George, Education for the Year 2000. In manuscript form. Available through Esalen, Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California.

Lincoln, C. Eric, The Black Muslims in America, Boston, Beacon Press, 1961.

Litwin, G. and R. Stringer, "The Influence of Organizational Climate on Human Motivation." (Multilith paper presented to the Conference on Organizational Climate, Fairlane Conference Center, Dearborn, Michigan, 1966. Available from G. Litwin at Harvard Graduate School of Business Administration, Humphrey 21, Cambridge, Mass.)

Lynd, Helen Merrill, On Shame and the Search for Identity, New York, Science Editions, 1966.

Makarenko, Anton S., Road to Life (Translated by Stephen Garry), London, S. Nott, 1936.

Malamud, Daniel I., A Participant-Observer Approach to the Teaching of Human Relations, Chicago, Center for the Study of Liberal Education for Adults, 1955.

Malamud, Daniel I., "A Workshop in Self-Understanding Designed to Prepare Patients for Psychotherapy," American Journal of Psychotherapy, (1958) 12; 771-786.

Malamud, Daniel I., "Educating Adults in Self-Understanding" Mental Hygiene, (1960) 44; 115-124.

Malamud, Daniel I. and S. Machover, Toward Self-Understanding: Group Techniques in Self-Confrontation, Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, 1965.

Maltz, Maxwell, Psycho-Cybernetics, Englewood Cliffs, N.J., Prentice-Hall, 1960.

Mann, John, Changing Human Behavior, New York, John Scribner's Sons, 1965.

Maslow, Abraham H., Eupsychian Management, Homewood, Illinois; Richard O. Irwin Inc. and the Dorsey Press, 1965.

McClelland, David C., "Achievement Motivation Can Be Developed," Harvard Business Review, (Nov., 1965) 43; 6-8+.

McClelland, David C., "Changing Values for Progress," in Burns, H.W. (Ed.), Education and the Development of Nations, Syracuse, N.Y., Syracuse University Press, 1963, pp. 60-78.

McClelland, David C., The Achieving Society, New York, D. Van Nostrand, 1961.

McClelland, David C., "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," American Psychologist, (May, 1965) 20 (5); 321-333.

McClelland, David C. and David G. Winter, Developing an Achieving Society, Free Press, 1969 (in press).

McConnell, M., "A Self Esteem Course for Late Maturing Adolescent Boys." (Unpublished paper available through Achievement Motivation Development Project, Peabody House, 13 Kirkland St., Cambridge, Mass.)

"Methods and Educational Programs for Stimulating Creativity: A Representative List", (taken from Parnes, Sidney J., Creative Behavior Guidebook, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1967) Journal of Creative Behavior, (Winter 1968) 2 (1); 71-75.

Miles, L.D., Techniques of Value Analysis and Engineering, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Miles, Matthew, Learning to Work in Groups, New York, Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1959. (A publication of the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation).

Miller, George A., E. Galanter and K.H. Pribram, Plans and Structure of Behavior, New York, Holt, 1960.

Mooney, Ross and Eaher Razik (Eds.), Explorations in Creativity, New York, Harper and Row, 1967.

Moore, Sonia, The Stanislavski Method,New York, Viking Press, 1960.

Moreno, J.L., Who Shall Survive?, New York, Beacon House, 1953.

Murphy, Michael, "Esalen, Where Its At", Psychology Today, (Dec., 1967).

Myers, R.E. and E.P. Torrance, Ideabooks, Boston, Ginn and Co., 1965-66. Also Cunningham, B.F. and E.P. Torrance, Imagi/Craft Series in Creative Development, Boston, Ginn and Co., 1965-66.

Neill, Alexander S., Summerhill, New York, Hart Publishing Co., 1960.

Newberg, Norman, "Meditative Process." (Multilithed paper available from author at Office of Affective Development, Philadelphia Public School Building, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.). Newberg also has Cooperative Schools Program lesson sequences in communications, drama and urban affairs.

Newberg, Norman and Terry Borton, "Process as Content" (Xeroxed paper to be expanded into a book of the same title on curriculum in urban affairs and communication. Xeroxed paper available at Office of Affective Development - see Newberg above).

Nowlis, David, "Research Report on the Cooperative Schools Program," 1966, Philadelphia Public Schools. (Available through the Office of Affective Development, Philadelphia Public School Building, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.).

Olton; R.M., "A Self-Instructional Program for the Development of Productive Thinking in Fifth and Sixth Grade Children," in Williams, F.E. (Ed.), First Seminar on Productive Thinking in Education, St. Paul, Minnesota, Creativity and National Schools Project, Macalester College, 1966.

Orme, Michael E.J. and Richard F. Purnell, "Behavior Modification and Transfer in an Out-of-Control Classroom," Harvard Research and Development Center, 1968. (Available through the Office of Publications, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Longfellow Hall, Appian Way, Cambridge, Mass.).

Osborn, A.F., Applied Imagination, New York, Scribners , 1963.

Otto, Herbert, Ways of Growth, Springfield, Ill., Charles C. Thomas, 1967. (Collection of articles on affective programs. Also, a number of mimeo books on affective techniques are available from the author; Director, Human Potentialities Research Project, University of Utah.).

Parnes, Sidney J. and Eugene A. Brunelle, "The Literature of Creativity: Part I," *Journal of Creative Behavior*, (Winter, 1967) 1 (1); 52-109 (includes abstracts, references, bibliographies, etc.).

Parnes, Sidney J., "The Literature of Creativity: Part II," *Journal of Creative Behavior* (Spring, 1967) 1 (2); 191-240 (Bibliography of creativity research, including summaries from *Psychological Abstracts* and *Dissertation Abstracts*).

Parnes, Sidney J., "Programming Creative Behavior," Research Project No. 5-0716, Contractual No. OE-7-42-1630-213, Educational Research Information Center, Room 3-0-083, 400 Maryland Ave., S.W., Washington, D.C. 20202 (Self-instructional course in applied imagination).

Parnes, Sidney J. and Harold F. Harding (Eds.), *A Source Book for Creative Thinking*, New York, Charles Scribner's Sons, 1962.

Payne, Buryl, "Extra-Verbal Techniques and Korzybskian Formulations," *ETC*, (March, 1968) 15 (1); 7-15.

Perls, Frederick, Ralph F. Hefferline, and Paul Goodman, *Gestalt Therapy: Excitement and Growth in the Human Personality*, New York, Julian Press, 1951(Paperback copy by Dell Publishing Co., New York, 1965 - a Delta Book).

Peterson, Severin, "Affective Techniques" (List or short description of techniques being used at Esalen). Reach author through Esalen, *Big Sur Hot Springs*, Big Sur, California, or at 1254 Taylor, San Francisco, Calif.

Pigors, P.W. and F.C. Pigors, *Case Method in Human Relations: The Incident Method*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1961.

Polanyi, Michael, *The Tacit Dimension*, Garden City, N.Y., Doubleday, 1966 (paperpack copy by Anchor, 1967).

Prince, George M., "The Operational Mechanism of Synectics," *Journal of Creative Behavior* (Winter, 1968) 2 (2); 1-13.

"Productive Thinking Program," available from Educational Innovation, Box 9248, Berkeley, California, 94719. (Also developing materials on "Understanding and Explanation," "Invention and Innovation," and "Creative Expression").

Randolph, Norma and W.A. Howe, *Self-Enhancing Education, A Program to Motivate Learners*, Palo Alto, California, Sanford Press, 1967.

Raths, Louis, Merrill Harmin, and Sidney Simon, *Values and Teaching*, Columbus, Ohio, Charles Merrill Books, 1966 (a concrete lesson plan approach to the teaching of value clarification).

Ruesch, Jurgen, and Weldon Kees, *Non-Verbal Communication*, Berkeley, California, University of California Press, 1956.

Sarason, Seymore B., Psychology in Community Settings, New York, John Wiley and Sons, 1966.

Schutz, William, Joy, New York, Grove Press, 1968.

Schwitzgebel, Ralph and David Kolb, Changing Human Behavior (tentative title), to be published by Van Nostrand in late 1968.

Seidman, Jerome M. (Ed.), Educating for Mental Health: A Book of Readings, New York, Crowell, 1963.

Sizer, Theodore, "Report of the President's Committee on Clinical Training Programs at Harvard University," Harvard Graduate School of Education (not available to the public until late fall, 1968).

Skinner, B.F., Walden Two, New York, Macmillan Paperback, 1962 (Original copy in 1948).

Slade, Peter, Child Drama, London, University of London Press, 1954.

Smiley, Marjorie, B., Gateway English, New York, Macmillan, 1966.

Spolin, Viola, Improvisation for the Theater, Evanston, Ill., Northwestern University Press, 1963 (Excellent lesson plans and excercises for a variety of purposes).

Taylor, Raymond, "Research Report of the Cooperative Schools Program", 1967, Philadelphia Public Schools. Copies are available through Office of Affective Development, Philadelphia Public School Building, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.

Thelen, Herbert A., Dynamics of Groups at Work, Chicago, University of Chicago Press, 1954.

Torrance, E.P. and R. Gupta, "Development and Evaluation of Recorded Programmed Experiences in Creative Thinking in the Fourth Grade," A research project performed under provision of Title VII of the National Defense Act of 1958 (P.L. 85-864) with the New Educational Media Branch, U.S. Office of Education, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1964.

True, S.R., "A Study of the Relation of General Semantics and Creativity," Dissertation Abstracts (1964) 25 (4); 2390.

Upton, A. and R. Samson, Creative Analysis, New York, Dutton, 1964.

Uraneck, W.O., "Creative Thinking Workbook" (1963). Available from author at 56 Turning Mill Road, Lexington, Mass., 02173.

Uraneck, W.O., "Young Thinker" (A series of more than 50 projects and exercises to teach creative thinking, for individuals or groups, ages 5-10). Available from author at 56 Turning Mill Road, Lexington, Mass., 02173.

Uris, Auren, "Work Simplification," Factory (Sept., 1965).

U.S. Department of Defense, Value Engineering Handbook, H111 , Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, March 29, 1963.

U.S. Office of Strategic Services Assessment Staff, Assessment of Men, New York, Rinehart, 1948.

Watson, Goodwin, (Ed.) Change in School Systems, NEA, 1967. Available through National Training Laboratories, 1201 16th St., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Watson, Goodwin, (Ed.) Concepts for Social Change, NEA, 1967. Available through National Training Laboratories, 1201 16th St., Washington, D.C. 20036.

Weinstein, Gerald, and Fantini, Mario, A Model for Developing Relevant Content for Disadvantaged Children, New York, Fund for the Advancement of Education, Ford Foundation (to be published, 1968).

Whiting, C.S., Creative Thinking, New York, Reinhold Publishing Corp., 1958.

Winter, Sara K., J.C. Griffith and D.A. Kolb, "Capacity for Self-Direction," Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, (1968) 32 (1); 35-41.

Yablonsky, Lewis, The Tunnel Back: Synanon, New York, Macmillan, 1965. (Paperback version, Penguin Books, Inc., Baltimore, Md., 1967).

Yeomans, Edward, "Education for Initiative and Responsibility," 1967. Available from the National Association of Independent Schools, 4 Liberty Square, Boston, Mass. (Article on Leichester Schools. See also Featherston's articles).

II. JOURNALS, FILMS, AND TAPES

Ankh, published by the Utopian and Eupsychian Nudists, Elysium Institute, 5436 Fernwood Ave., Los Angeles, California, 90027.

Borton, Terry, "Prelude" (1966) and "A Lot of Undoing to Do" (1968). Two films about the Philadelphia Cooperative Schools. With Oliver Nuse and Jim Morrow. Films are available through the Audio-Visual Department, Philadelphia Public School Building, Room 327, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.

Human Potential, publication of the Institute for the Achievement of Human Potential, 1800 Stenton Ave., Philadelphia, Pa.

Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., Washington, D.C., 20036.

Journal of Conflict Resolution, Center for Research on Conflict Resolution, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 48104.

Journal of Creative Behavior, Creative Education Foundation, 1614 Rand Building, Buffalo, New York, 14203.

Journal of Humanistic Psychology, 2637 Marshall Drive, Palo Alto, California. Published by the American Association of Humanistic Psychology, 584 Page St., San Francisco, California, 94117.

Lewin, Kurt, "Experimental Studies in the Social Climates of Groups," (1940). Film available through the Krasker Memorial Film Library, Boston University, 765 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass., 02215.

Litwin, George, "Organizational Climate" (1966). Film is available through the Audio-Visual Department, Harvard Business School, Soldiers Field Road, Boston, Mass., 02163.

Main Currents in Modern Thought, published by the Foundation for Integrative Education, 777 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y., 10017.

Manas (published weekly), Manas Publishing Co., P.O. Box 32112, El Sereno Station, Los Angeles, California, 90032.

Newberg, Norman, "Build Yourself a City" (1968), film on an urban affairs course, "It's Between the Lines" (1968) on a drama course, "Making Sense" (1968) on a communications course, and "Process as Content" (Film to be ready in 1969). All films are available through through the Office of Affective Development, Room 329, Philadelphia Public School Building, 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.

"The Quiet One" (1948). Film about the Wiltwick School. Distributed by Contemporary Films, c/o McGraw-Hill, Text-Film Department, Heightstown, New Jersey.

Skinner, B.F., Esalen tapes on Affective Education which include interviews with Maslow, Skinner, Rogers, etc. Available through Esalen, Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California.

"Where is Prejudice" (1967). Film available through the NET Film Library, Audio-Visual Department, University of Indiana, Bloomington, Indiana, 47401.

III. ORGANIZATIONS

American Association for Curriculum Development
National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N.W., Washington, D.C., 20036

American Association for Humanistic Psychology
584 Page St., San Francisco, California, 94117. John Levy, Executive Director. Focuses on experience as the primary phenomenon in the study of man; emphasis on choice, creativity, valuation, and self-realization.

American Conservatory Theater
San Francisco, California. William Ball, Director. Reverses "method acting" to make the motion produce the expression.

Aureon Institute
71 Park Ave., New York, N.Y. 10016. Harold Streitfeld, Director. Interested in non-verbal activity and body movement.

Center for Research on Conflict Resolution
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan. Ken Bolding, Daniel Katz, and Herbert Kellman. Publishes the Journal of Conflict Resolution.

Community Makers
13 W. 89th St., New York, N.Y. Uses theater games etc. to build community involvement and organizational knowledge.

Cooperative Program of Educational Development, (COPED)
National Training Laboratories, National Education Association, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington D.C., 20036. National cooperative research project on the uses of social sciences in education.

Daytop Lodge
450 Bayview Ave., Prince's Bay, Staten Island, New York, 10309. David Deitch, Director. Renewal center for drug addicts run by former drug addicts using confrontation groups.

Development Research Associates, Inc.
1218 Mass. Ave., Cambridge, Mass., 02138. Alfred Alschuler, David Kolb, and James McIntyre (President). Runs programs in self-assessment, motive arousal, and "the helping relationship" for Peace Corps, schools, and government agencies.

Esalen Institute
Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California, 93920. Mike Murphy, Director. Acts as a broker to bring together all types of psychological educators with groups of people who wish to go through the courses offered. (See Murphy, Section I)

Education for the Future Project
Stanford Research Institute, Palo Alto, California. Willis Harman, Director.

Fayerweather Street School
P. O. Box 287, Cambridge, Mass., 02138. Matt Judson, Headmaster.
U. S. counterpart of Leicestershire Schools in England.

Foundation for Integrative Education
777 United Nations Plaza, New York, N.Y., 10017. Publishes
Main Currents in Modern Thought.

Fresh Air Camp
University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, Elton McNeil,
Director. Here and now approach to juvenile delinquency.

Human Development Inc.
Atlanta, Georgia. Produces programmed materials for affective
development. (See Bessell, Section 1)

Institute for the Achievement of Human Potential
1800 Stenton Ave., Philadelphia, Pa. Publishes Human Potential.
Works with brain damaged children. Is now setting up an experimental
school to extend the teaching techniques used with brain damaged
children to normal children to work towards a "maxi-child".

Institute for Bioenergetic Analysis
71 Park Ave., New York, N.Y. 10016. Adele Lewis, Executive
Secretary. Interested in body movement and its relation to
psychological well-being.

International Foundation for Psychosynthesis
Suite 901, Linde Medical Plaza, 10921 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles,
California, 90024. Robert Gerard, President. Center for research
and dissemination of information on psychosynthesis.

Kairos
Wishing Well Hotel, P. O. Box 350, Rancho Sante Fe, California,
92067. Bob Driver, President. Branch of Esalen.

Midwest Center for Human Potential
Stone-Brandel Center, 1439 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois,
60605.

National Center for Exploration of Human Potential
Stone-Brandel Center, 1439 South Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois,
60605. Herbert Otto and John Mann, Directors.

National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science,
1201 16th St., N.W., Washington D.C., 20036. Leland Bradford,
Director. Runs training centers and schools for T-groups, basic-encounter groups, personal-growth groups, etc. (Publishes Journal
for Applied Behavioral Science.)

Outward Bound, Inc.
Andover, Mass. 01810. Joshua Minor, Director. Attempts to build
self-confidence and self-reliance through a variety of physical
tests of endurance.

Psychosynthesis Research Foundation
Room 314, 527 Lexington Ave., New York, N.Y. 10017. Frank Hilton,
Director. (See Assagioli, Section I).

Seminar House
Upper Black Eddy, Bucks County, Pa. Grenville Moat. Runs Esalen-like program.

Simulmatics Corporation
16 E. 41st St., New York, N.Y. 10017. Makes game simulations of life situations, eg. life-career game , community disaster game, etc.

Social Dynamics Inc.,
335 Newbury St., Boston, Mass. Paul R. Mico, President; Donald C. Klein, Director. Involved in human relations training and social action programming.

Society of American Value Engineers
Windy Hill, Suite E-9, 1741 Roswell St., Smyrna, Georgia, 30080. Distributes current information, conference reports, bibliographies, etc. on value engineering.

Summer in the City
32 E. 51st St., New York, N.Y. Program run by Monseigneur Robert J. Fox. Social action program using mass confrontations.

The Summer Program
Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California. Anne Hornbacker, Jay Manley, and Peter Kleinbard. West Coast extension of the Philadelphia Cooperative Schools.

Synanon
1351 Pacific Coast Highway, Santa Monica, California, 90401. Chuck Diderich, Director. Total environmental approach to promoting self-actualization and in the process curing addiction.

Teen Challenge
Program run by the Pentecostal Church in San Francisco and other major cities as a re-training center for drug addicts.

Topanga Human Development Center
Suite 251, 1901 Avenue of the Stars, Los Angeles, California, 90067. Mr. Robert Sangster, Chairman.

Western Behavioral Sciences Institute
1121 Torrey Pines Road, La Jolla, California. Richard Farson, Director. Center of T-group work on the West Coast.

Wiltwick School
260 Park Ave., South,New York, N.Y. Dr. Hagop Mashikian, Director. Total environment therapy. (see "The Quiet One", Section II)

Work Simplification Conferences
P. O. Box 30, Lake Placid, New York, 12947. Distributes current information on work simplification.

IV. PEOPLE

Alschuler, Alfred (See section I)
Assistant Professor, Harvard Graduate School of Education, Peabody House, 13 Kirkland St., Cambridge, Mass., 02138; Director, Achievement Motivation Development Project; Board of Directors, Development Research Associates (See section III).

Ball, William
Director, American Conservatory Theater, San Francisco, California (See section III).

Bolding, Ken
Center for Research on Conflict Resolution, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan (See section III).

Borton, Terry (See section I under Borton and Newberg and Section II)
Chairman of the Affective Education Group, 59 Pemberton St., Cambridge, Mass.; Co-Director, Affective Education Research Project, Philadelphia Public Schools.

Bradford, Leland (See section I)
Director, National Training Laboratories Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1201 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C., 20036 (See section III).

Brooks, Charles
c/o New School for Social Research, New York, N. Y. Developer of sensory awareness movement in the U. S. (with Charlotte Selver).

Brown, George (See section I)
Director, Ford Project in Teacher Education, Esalen, Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California.

Brugental, James (See section I)
American Association of Humanistic Psychology; Esalen; Psychological Services Association, Los Angeles, California.

Cooper, Jack
Psychosynthesis Research Foundation, 527 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y., 10017.

Deitch, David
Director, Daytop Lodge, 450 Bayview Ave., Prince's Bay, Staten Island, New York, N. Y., 10309 (See section III).

Desai, Amrit
405 Division St., Jenkintown, Pennsylvania, 19046. Yoga instructor in 1967 at the Cooperative School Program, Philadelphia, Pa.

Diderich, Chuck
Director, Synanon, 1351 Pacific Coast Highway, Santa Monica, California, 90401 (See section III).

Driver, Bob
President, Kairos, Wishing Well Hotel, P. O. Box 350 Rancho Santa Fe, California, 92067 (See section III).

Farson, Richard
Director, Western Behavioral Sciences Institute, 1121 Torrey Pines Rd., La Jolla, California (See section III).

Rox, Monseigneur Robert J.
32 E. 51st St., New York, N. Y. Runs Summer in the City Program (See section III).

Gendlin, Eugene
Associate Professor, Department of Psychology, University of Chicago, Chicago, Illinois. Directs program in Philosophical Psychology.

Gerard, Robert
President, International Foundation for Psychosynthesis, Suite 901, Linde Medical Plaza, 10921 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles, California, 90024 (see section III).

Harman, Willis
Education for the Future Project, Stanford Research Institute, Palo Alto, California.

Hilton, Frank
Director, Psychosynthesis Research Foundation, Room 314, 527 Lexington Ave., New York, N. Y., 10017. (See section III).

Hornbacker, Anne
The Summer Program, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California (See section III).

Judson, Matt
Headmaster, Fayerweather Street School, P. O. Box 287, Cambridge, Mass., 02138 (See section III).

Katz, Daniel
Center for Research on Conflict Resolution, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan (See section III).

Katz, Richard (See section I)
Assistant Professor, Department of Psychology, Brandeis University, Waltham, Mass. Conducts programs in non-verbal communication and self-assessment.

Kellam, Sheppard G. (M.D.)
Woodlawn Mental Health Center, 841 E. 63rd St., Chicago, Illinois, 60637.

Kellman, Herbert
Center for Research on Conflict Resolution, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan (See section III).

Klein, Donald C.
Director, Social Dynamics, Inc., 335 Newbury St., Boston, Mass.
(See section III).

Kleinbard, Peter
The Summer Program, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California
(See section III).

Kolb, David (See section I)
Board of Directors of Development Research Associates,
1218 Mass. Ave., Cambridge, Mass. (See section III).

Levy, John
Executive Director, American Association for Humanistic
Psychology, 584 Page St., San Francisco, California, 94117
(See section III).

Manley, Jay
The Summer Program, Berkeley High School, Berkeley, California
(See section III).

Mann, John (See section I)
Co-director, National Center for Exploration of Human Potential,
Stone-Brandel Center, 1439 S. Michigan Ave., Chicago, Illinois,
60605.

Mashikian, Hagop (M.D.)
Director, Wiltwick School, 260 Park Ave., S., New York, N.Y.
(See section III).

Maslow, Abraham (See section I)
Psychology Department, Brandeis University, Waltham, Mass.
Nexus for the Eupsychian network. Has a five-page list of
additional people and organizations in the Eupsychian network.

McIntyre, James
President, Development Research Associates, 1218 Mass. Ave.,
Cambridge, Mass. (See section III).

McNeil, Elton
Fresh Air Camp, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
(See section III).

Mico, Paul R.
President, Social Dynamics, Inc., 335 Newbury St., Boston,
Mass. (See section III).

Minor, Joshua
Director, Outward Bound, Inc., Andover, Mass. 01810 (See
section III).

Moat, Grenville
Seminar House, Upper Black Eddy, Bucks County, Pa.
(See section III).

Moffet, James
Harvard Graduate School of Education, Longfellow Hall, Cambridge, Mass., 02138. Has designed a complete English curriculum based on drama.

Murphy, Mike (See section I).
President, Esalen Institute, Big Sur Hot Springs, Big Sur, California, 93920 (See section III).

Newberg, Norman (See sections I and II).
Specialist in Affective Development, Philadelphia School System, Philadelphia Public School Building (Room 329), 21st and Parkway, Philadelphia, Pa.

Otto, Herbert
Co-director, National Center for Exploration of Human Potential, Stone-Brandel Center, 1439 S. Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois, 60605 (See section I).

Progoff, Ira
45 W. 10th St., New York, N.Y., 10011. Runs dialogue center and works with depth imagery.

Ripley, Wilbur
Director, 15th St. School, New York, N.Y. Reported in Look. Connected with Creative Playthings.

Satir, Virginia
Director, Training for the Family Project, Palo Alto, California. Founder of conjoint family therapy which uses entire family in role-playing group situation.

Sangster, Robert
Chairman, Topanga Human Development Center, Suite 251, 1901 Avenue of the Stars, Los Angeles, California, 90067.

Schiff, Sheldon K. (M.D.)
Woodlawn Mental Health Center, 841 E. 63rd St., Chicago, Illinois, 60637.

Selver, Charlotte
c/o New School for Social Research, New York, N. Y. Developer of sensory awareness movement in U.S. (With Charles Brooks).

Shapiro, Stuart
Western Psychological Center, Encino, California. Works with ego therapy.

Streitfeld, Harold
Director, Aureon Institute, 71 Park Ave., New York, N.Y., 10016 (See section III).

Chapter 2

CHAPTER 2

LEARNING THE ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVE

A Self-Directed Workshop for Teachers

by

James McIntyre

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this workshop is to allow potential motivation course teachers to experience a course themselves. In the past it has been a reasonably expensive process for a school to give such a course. Professional trainers were needed not only for training teachers, but for ongoing consultation as the teachers prepared a course for the students. This made long, involved proposals to funding agencies necessary and often meant that the teachers were very dependent on the presence of the trainer in organizing their own course. This workshop is an attempt to overcome these problems, allowing you to learn enough about achievement motivation to design a course of your own for your unique students. Your commitment to the workshop as a learning experience is the most critical factor in the workshop's success. It is also the only way the purposes of the workshop will be fulfilled.

1. Who should attend? In order to use the workshop materials properly, you should have a group of at least six teachers and administrators who would like to be involved in giving such a course to your students. An ideal group would be twelve people, and any number above fifteen should be split into two similar and equal groups to facilitate interaction.

If it is impossible to do otherwise, go ahead and have your course without anyone from the administration. Our experience, however, causes us to encourage you to make every effort possible to get the principal or headmaster or one of their assistants to participate. There are magic moments in this course when everyone feels "turned on." If there is no-one from the administration there, they will never understand your enthusiasm for such a program for the kids and will probably think your new vocabulary ("n-Ach, n-Aff, HOS WO") a little strange. A committed administrator will not only make the logistics of running a course for the kids easier, but can lend a great deal of prestige to the course through his interest and involvement.

2. Finding Time and Place: The workshop is divided into eight units, each taking about three hours. Some of the units could use twice that much time profitably. These more or less discrete units allow a great deal of flexibility in scheduling your own workshop. The ideal arrangement would be a retreat setting, away from all the distractions of everyday life, for a period of three days, e.g. - Thursday evening to Sunday afternoon. The course would have a much greater effect on the participants if it were done this way. However, meeting once or twice a week for three hours in a large comfortable room for eight or ten weeks would suffice, as would several full Saturdays. Since you as a group are running it, the decision is yours.

3. Preparation for Participation: Make sure every participant has a copy of this manual several days in advance of the beginning of the workshop, and request everyone to read chapters one and two before the workshop begins. This will save a lot of time and discussion and should give everyone the proper "set" for the course.

Most of the units require no materials other than those normally available, but in the few that do, the apparatus should be set up prior to the beginning of the session. Having one person be responsible for all materials and apparatus will make it run more smoothly. There is very little "homework" to be done between sessions. The one important exception is the preparation for session eight, when a thorough reading of chapter 4 is absolutely necessary. If that can be done prior to beginning the entire course, so much the better.

The materials you will need to conduct the workshop properly are:

1. pencils and paper for everyone
2. a copy of this manual for everyone
3. a standard ring-toss game
4. a circular dart board, with 10, 20, 30, 40, 60, 80, 100, score areas
5. at least six darts
6. Blackboard or large paper pad, or both (if you use the pad, magic markers will also be needed.)
7. some graph paper (1/8" squares is fine)
8. counters such as those used for keeping track of the total price while grocery shopping; one for each person
9. If you would like to use a film other than those suggested in unit four, the ETV film "The Need to Achieve," is available from Indiana University Film Center, Bloomington, Indiana. It says nothing about training, but does give a good picture of the background research.
10. if movies are used, a projector and screen
11. enough 8 1/2 x 11 paper for the Origami Game (see session six)

4. The Exercises: Each unit begins with a game or sequence of actions which is designed to involve the person as fully as possible in the learning experience, and to develop some feelings and information that may be used in the discussion which follows. This is an inductive experience-based approach that tries to generate answers that are appropriate to the individual.

Although some units in the course are more or less cognitive, each unit is designed to help the participant look at himself a little more closely and make some judgments about the appropriateness of achievement motivation for his own life style.

Every teacher knows that a student gets out of class only what he puts into it. Sometimes we tend to forget that the same is true of teachers. This section briefly outlines the kinds of attitudes we think are important for you to bring into this workshop if it is going to succeed.

Participative. This means dropping some of your grown-up inhibitions about playing games and jumping in with both feet. So what if you can't throw a dart straight or fold a paper airplane in less than a minute. If you expect the kids to come to your course with a participative attitude, you could give it a try yourself in the workshop.

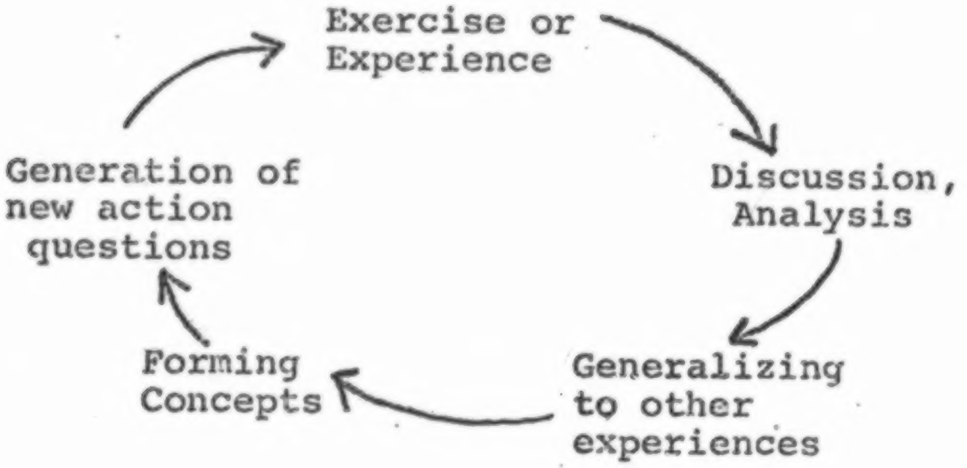
Supportive. A supportive attitude toward the other people in the course is imperative. Be as warm and friendly as possible, and steer clear of being judgmental. On the other hand, don't shy away from confronting others in the group when you think they are overlooking some relevant data, or when the conclusions about the material or process in the workshop is in contradiction to your own.

Inquiring. Be curious about the material, the research, yourself, and others. There have been many books written in this field (see bibliography on affective education in this manual) and many of them could be of great value in planning your course or increasing your learning. Ask the questions of others designed to clarify any confusion that may exist in your mind.

5. Working with the Data. Each exercise produces an abundance of information about the group and the individuals in it. Some of it will be on the blackboard, but most will be a little less obvious and you will need a method or

framework for getting at the hidden data that are floating around in the minds of the participants.

The best method we have found for getting at and using these feelings and ideas is a cybernetic learning loop that allows you to move as a group through a complete discussion cycle and into the next unit:


Exercise or Experience
Discussion, Analysis
Generalizing to other experiences
Forming Concepts
Generation of new action questions

Let's take an example that will illustrate how this model of goal-directed discussion might work. Suppose, for instance, that one unit in the workshop was on communication problems. The beginning exercise would be a small group discussion in which no person could speak his own mind until he had repeated the previous speaker's points in a way that satisfied the previous speaker.

The first part of the discussion following the exercise, when the condition of repeating is no longer in effect, would be spent in an open-ended discussion and analysis of the experience (box 2). The focus would probably be on the feelings people had and the difficulty they had concentrating on what the other person was saying. Slowly, the talk would begin to be concerned with other situations (box 3) where the participants have not listened well and have missed something. Most participants would realize that, as a general rule, they don't really listen to other people, as they are too busy thinking of what they are going to say while the other person is talking. Participants begin to recognize typical patterns in their own behavior which could stand changing (box 4). This leads into the next phase: "What can I do to improve myself in this area?" The group is now asking the action questions (box 5).

This is not the end of the process, however, for a loop is never ending. The action questions lead one into new experience (in this case another unit) which generates the process once again. You shouldn't follow this process slavishly in your workshop, but it is a good model for everyone to have in mind as the discussion of the exercises begins. It can insure a sense of direction in dealing with the data from the exercise, and can also be of help in planning the course units for students.

6. Evaluating the Effectiveness of Your Group Process.

At every point in the course the group should be making a concentrated effort to be aware of what's happening within the group itself. Are some people keeping the group from functioning as a learning team? Is the exercise adequate for the needs of the group? What can be done to make the next session more meaningful than this one?

At the end of each unit there is a short evaluation sheet. This is one of the most important parts of the course. All participants should fill it out honestly and straightforwardly at the end of each session. Each session someone is assigned to summarize for the following meeting the anonymous critiques and to lead a discussion of them. It need not take too much of your time at the beginning of the session to work through the issues raised by the sheets. But, if the issues seem sufficiently important, take the time to work them out. If, for instance, lack of cooperation between two people is keeping the group from accomplishing its aims, spend some time getting the conflict in the open and attempting to deal with it in a supportive way then and there. This involves some risk, but successfully working through the conflict can make the course even more meaningful for everyone. Try to reach some agreement on changes that should be made in the groups or the units on the basis of the Evaluation Sheets.

7. Feedback to the Achievement Motivation Development Project.

In order for us to improve this manual, we make a very strong request that you ask your group to write as complete an evaluation of it as you can. Be specific in your suggestions so that we may be specific in our revisions . In no sense is this manual thought of as a finished product, so we sincerely ask yourhelp.

Send all evaluations and feedback to:

Achievement Motivation Development Project
Harvard University Graduate School of
Education
13 Kirkland Street
Cambridge, Mass.
02138

THE UNITS IN ORDER

1. Who am I? Why am I here? What do I want from the workshop?
2. The thought characteristics of achievement motivation.
3. Achievement action strategies.
4. The Origami Game
5. Helping styles
6. Goal-setting
7. Developing the Action Plan
8. Developing your own course for students.

BEFORE

Going on to the rest of the course, take about 30 minutes to complete the following Test of Imagination (see appendix). Look at each picture for approximately twenty seconds, then turn the page and write an imaginative story about the picture. Wherever possible, answer the questions on the page on which you are writing.

TAKE ONLY FIVE MINUTES PER STORY!

SESSION ONE: Who am I? Why am I here? What do I want to gain?

During this session, for which you should leave at least 2 1/2 hours, you will have a chance to explore with other members of the group your feelings and your thoughts about who you really are and what you are like. Your expectations for the workshop should be talked about as openly as possible, in order for all participants to share the expectations of each.

I. Arrangement: Seated in a circle, preferably without a table or any other obstacle in between. People should be comfortable with the seating arrangement and feel free to alter it.

II. Procedure:

1. Round one: Each person has an opportunity to say who he feels he is. Although this may have a tendency to begin mechanically ("name, rank, serial number"), you should try to be as open and honest as possible about yourself. What, for instance, do you feel are your greatest strengths? weaknesses? At what major points has your life changed markedly? Why? What are some adjectives that could be used to describe you by your friends? Are they the same as you would use?

Some groups begin this session by having each member write down an answer to the questions, "Who am I?", "Why am I here?". Other groups begin by asking each person to write his or her own obituary. In this way members present future goals along with past personal history. In all cases open questioning is encouraged to elicit further information but not to probe for the childhood "causes" of present behavior.

2. Round two: Go back around the circle, and this time try to explore the reasons for your being here. Is it totally pedagogical, or can part of the reason be a desire to increase your own need to achieve? What do you want to get from this workshop and/or from leading a course in achievement motivation for kids? In what ways would you like to change during this workshop?

During this exercise you will begin hammering out the terms of your psychological contract with each other, learning something about the expectations and contributions of each member of the group. Feel free to interrupt and question when you feel it is appropriate. If conflict should arise, deal with it then and there. Talk it out until some level of understanding is reached that will allow the course to proceed. Never let the conflict fester simply for the sake of keeping on schedule. The other inputs into the workshop will be less useful if people in the group do not feel comfortable with each other.

You should try to be helpful to the others, which sometimes means giving another person honest feedback on how you perceive him. If your group is to progress, it is imperative that this feedback be as objective as possible, and directed toward changeable behavior. If your group can get to this point of honesty, the rest of the course will have a great deal more meaning.

Don't forget to fill out the evaluation sheets at the end of the session and to assign someone the task of summarizing the comments at the beginning of Unit 2.

EVALUATION SHEET
SESSION ONE

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

SESSION TWO: Thought Characteristics

TIME: Flexible, but at least two hours. If more time is needed, use the next scheduled session to insure completion.

PURPOSES:

To understand the thought characteristics of the person with high n-Ach (need-Achievement).

To learn something of your own motives as they are shown thematically in the stories you have written.

To become familiar enough with the n-Ach scoring system to teach it effectively to your students.

GROUPING:

Groups of three usually are ideal for this exercise, but your group as a whole should make the decision as to whether or not this number is appropriate.

PROCEDURE:

1. Turn to the first story you wrote on the "Test of Imagination." Read them aloud and compare them in terms of the dominant motivational imagery, as defined in the "Teachers Guide to coding for Achievement, Affiliation and Power Motivation: Motive Imagery (see appendix)". Do this for the second story or until the concepts of n-Achievement, n-Affiliation, and n-Power seem clear to you.
2. Go on to the next section of the teachers guide, "The Achievement Scoring System," and work through that together until you are familiar with the ten points of scoring for n-Achievement.
3. Go back to your stories on the "Test of Imagination" and score them completely for n-Achievement, using the "Test of Imagination n-Ach Score Sheet", at the end of the Teachers Guide.

4. Try to get some perspective on this exercise by considering the following discussion questions. Please remember that not all of your questions can be answered immediately at this point in the course. A certain amount of uncertainty and confusion is normal. The remaining sessions in this course are devoted to answering these questions in detail.

SUGGESTED DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What is the value in learning to score TAT stories for n-Ach?
2. Do you think learning to write stories according to the scoring system would have any effect on a person's life?
3. How often do you, personally, think in terms of "competing with your internal standards of excellence?"
4. Do you think it would help you to think along these lines more often? What would other people think?
5. If a person tended to think along the lines of the scoring system, what do you think his school record would be?
6. What are some ways in which the scoring system (thought characteristics of n-Ach) could be taught to kids?

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Two

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

BEFORE ADJOURNING

Don't forget to assign one of your group members to summarize the evaluation sheets at the beginning of the next session.

Make sure the materials for the dart game and ring toss game are set up properly so that they will be ready for use when you convene the next session. (see appendix 2.1 and 2.2)

SESSION THREE

ACTION CHARACTERISTICS of the person with high n-Ach

TIME REQUIRED: about three hours

Research in risk-taking behavior and related areas has produced some results that are of great interest. People with a high need to achieve behave differently when compared to other people. Psychological Researchers are beginning to understand the complex relationships between motives and action. They are finding that people's achievement motive, as scored on the TAT (Test of Imagination), generally predicts four action characteristics. Before discussing these, let's play one or two games in the group. Keep accurate records of people's performance for use during the following discussion period.

THE GAMES:

There are several games in the appendix that will do quite well for our purposes, but two in particular fulfill our criteria of simplicity of operation and complexity of alternatives: The Ring-Toss Game and The Dart Game.

Both are described in detail in the appendix, including instructions for setting them up. They should have been set up before this session began, and if so, all you need to play them are the instructions and a score sheet that all can see.

These score sheets may be on a blackboard or large paper with magic marker, as long as the scores are visible to all. They should be replicas of the score sheets found in the instructions to the games.

PROCEDURE:

I. Play three rounds of the ring-toss game, keeping scores.

The time necessary will vary according to the number of players.

II. Talk about your performances in the group. Why did you choose the distance you did? Why did you change distances in another round, or, why did you stay at the same distance? Did you feel any SF's? What do you think your probabilities of success were from each distance you chose? In other situations do you tend to take the same level of risks you did here? (Limit this discussion to 30 minutes, even if it is not finished to everyone's satisfaction)

III. Play two rounds of the dart game. You may divide into teams on the second round if you would like, and keep team scores as well as individual scores. Consult with the team about your decisions and risks.

IV. Talk about your feelings as you played the game. Did you really think you could throw darts that well? What effect did the other people watching have on your decisions? Did you like their help in making decisions, or did you resist it? If you team cheered for you, did it help or hinder your performance? (Try to limit this discussion to about 30 minutes also)

THEN

Turn the page to find out how people with high n-Ach act in situations similar to these and review your performance in that light.

Research has shown that people with a high need to achieve tend to act in a special way in games like these and in many life situations. As each of these four action characteristics of n-Ach are explained, go back to the data generated during the two games and evaulate your own and the rest of the groups' strategies.

I. The person with high n-Ach takes moderate risks. He isn't interested in throwing the rings from three feet and making sure he scores. There's no challenge in that; it doesn't make his adrenalin move at all. Anyone can do it from there.

Nor is he interested in throwing from so far away that the outcome is left to chance. A 100-to-one shot might appeal to some, but not him. What he wants is a middle position where his skill and dexterity will be challenged, but where he has a fighting chance of making it, given his best effort.

In life situations he will probably be very bored by a sure thing(and will probably leave it for something more challenging, where there is some risk. He will not, however, be much for lost causes or completely hopeless situations.)

Review some of your scores in the games and see if you and the group can come to some agreement about levels of risk. Would a moderate risk be the same distance or bid for everyone? Could you define moderate risk taking a little more precisely, perhaps in terms of probabilities? (Try to limit this discussion to about 20 minutes, then go on to the next action characteristic)

II. The person with high n-Ach likes to take personal responsibility for his own success or failure.

This may make him sound like a loner or one who cannot work with others, and in some situations this may be true. We have seen in the scoring system however, that the high achiever does request help when he needs it, and high n-Ach is not a bar to working with others.

What this does mean is that he wants to be in a situation where his success or failure depends on how well he does at the task. He is probably not a gambler, since that would mean staking his satisfaction on pure chance or on the efforts of someone else.

He will consult with other people, but he wants the final decision on his work to he his. It is not inconceivable that many kids we now consider "under-achievers" have a reasonably high n-Ach, but find the classroom situation too regimented to afford them the kind of freedom they need to make many of their own decisions and follow them through in their own way. Such a student feels no sense of personal responsibility when asked to do the same things as everyone else. And he probably doesn't care about what other people think of his performance, since others have made most of the critical decisions.

When reviewing the information on the game score sheets, check and see if there were significant differences between the time you threw the rings alone and with the group present. Were you honestly concerned with challenge and personal responsibility, or did the presence of the group change your style enough so that it was no longer your decision? How much personal responsibility is involved in throwing the rings from beyond 13 feet, or setting your dart goal at 80 or 100 every time?

Discuss the problem of personal responsibility in the classroom. How can it be facilitated? Is it practical, or would too many kids cop out if given the chance?

(Try to keep this discussion down to about 20 minutes also.)

III. The person with high n-Ach seeks and uses immediate, concrete feedback on his performance.

We have seen how the high achiever likes to operate in a certain area of probability (moderate risk-taking) and how he wants to take personal responsibility for the outcome. In addition, he wants to know how well he is doing as often as he possibly can. This is probably the reason why many high n-Ach people tend to go into sales or other entrepreneurial activities early in their careers. There are few places where performance is evaluated so often (weekly, monthly) in such an accurate reliable way (dollars, sales figures).

A lot of us who become teachers, on the other hand, do so precisely because we don't really want or need this kind of rapid feedback. We frequently say that our rewards are in the faces of the kids, and in our inner satisfaction.

The person with high n-Ach will usually adjust his performance according to the feedback he is getting. If it is negative, he will probably work much harder to make it positive. If it is positive, he will have some SF, but will know he can't rest on his laurels.

How well did you use your feedback from the score sheet in setting succeeding goals in the games? Did you pay much attention to it? How about the scores of others? Did they provide any helpful feedback about how you might change your levels of risk in the games?

IV. The person with high n-Ach takes initiative and actively researches his environment.

Before he begins to play, he wants to be sure he knows exactly what the rules of the game are, and what options are open to him. He will try to test the materials he is to work or play with as much as possible before performing. He will probably look for corners to cut in order to improve his performance while staying within the rules.

Think about your performance in the games. Did you insist on practice throws? How tenaciously? Did you watch how others threw to see if there might be some hints for making your own methods more effective?

In other situations, how actively aware of your environment are you? Do you test its limits? Do you test your own limits? Do you encourage environment-probing in your students? How? Do you ever discourage it, consciously or unconsciously?

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. What did the games and the data developed during them help you to realize about yourself? Did it clarify anything about your behavior for you?
2. What in your behavior during the games is typical of the way you approach other situations in real life? Be specific.
3. Do the concepts of these action strategies have real meaning for you? Are they usable in your situation?
4. In what ways can you creatively present these strategies to the kids in the course you will give? Can you make them relevant to their situations?
5. In what way does your classroom structure naturally encourage kids to use these strategies? In what way does it discourage them from acting like high achievers? (There will be time later in your workshop to deal with questions 4 and 5 in more depth and begin to formulate some action plans and questions in more detail.)

BEFORE ADJOURNING:

Fill out the evaulation sheet for this session so that you can discuss it at the beginning of the next session to see if there are ways the group process may be improved.

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Three

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

SESSION FOUR

The Origami Game

TIME: About three hours.

PURPOSE:
a. to practice action strategies in complex situation
b. to experience another input that will turn the kids on

MATERIALS: As listed in game instructions (see appendix 2.3)

PROCEDURE: As in game instructions. If yourgroup is large enough, divide into two or three groups of equal size so that team scores may be kept and cooperation encouraged during the last two rounds.

Leave enough time at the end of the game for a full group discussion, focusing on the following points:

a. What kinds of risks did you take?

b. What effect did having to state your bid have on your estimates and your performance?

c. Go over the scoring system in terms of the game. Can you identify thoughts or feelings you had that are scoreable?

d. Were you very involved with the game? Why?

e. What would you have to do to elicit the same level of involvement in the classroom? How are your class activities structured differently from this game?

f. Finally, what's the building custodian going to think of your group when he sees all that folded paper?

SESSION FIVE

PART ONE --HELPING STYLES

TIME: One meal-time plus three hours.

PURPOSE:

a. to focus on how it feels to help and be helped.

b. to explore helping styles and their effect on those being helped.

c. to look at your own behavior; how your approach to helping effects others, specifically students.

PART ONE:

MATERIALS: Blindfolds for half the people in the group. They may be of dark cloth or anything else that blocks the light. A simple alteration of "half-masks" that cover just the eye and nose areas makes them ideal for this purpose. Tape the mask's eye-holes from the inside with an opaque tape (mystik tape is good) so that the wearer cannot see. Blindfolds made this way are less irritating and are inclined to be cooler.

PROCEDURE: About ten minutes before meal time (perhaps at the end of session three if there is to be a meal between sessions three and four), blindfold half the group. It is a good idea to try to get an even sexual division so that half the males and half the females are blindfolded.

There are no further instructions, with the exception that the blindfolded people must keep their blindfolds on through the meal and into the beginning of the next session.

If possible, try to allow about one hour between the end of the meal and the beginning of the next session for free activity. There is little need to worry about the appropriateness of your setting, as this exercise has been done successfully in the most extreme settings imaginable.

Use the discussion guide and description on the next pages when you meet after the meal to get at the problems of helping styles.

DISCUSSION GUIDE

The first question that will probably arise during this exercise is: "What does this silly game have to do with achievement motivation?" Fair enough. At first glance it probably seems that this is something stuck into the workshop program to make it a little more memorable, a kind of goofy experience to tell your friends about when talking politics gets boring. There is a little of that in our intentions. We do want you to do things you will remember and think about for some time.

If that were the only purpose, the game wouldn't really be here. In order to get at that purpose, it's necessary to go back a little bit into the preceding session and think about the way high achievers act. In the last session we learned that people with high n-Ach are moderate risk-takers who like to explore their environment, take personal responsibility for their own success or failure, and desire concrete feedback on their performance whenever possible. These characteristics give a profile of an active, probing individual who wants to be as independent as his situation allows.

When you begin to talk about the experience you have just had, seat yourselves in a circle and start with a person who did not have a blindfold on. In addition to describing what you are doing as you relive the blindfold experience, also describe what you are feeling. Try to remember feelings about the people you were helping or being helped by. Did you object to the way some people helped? Why? Tell them why you don't like that kind of help and what you would have preferred they do. Did anyone play jokes? Did anyone get or give a cane for a blindfolded person? How would you describe the roles people took? Mother Hen, traffic cop, observer, the sleeper. Who was really blind, - the helpers or the helpless? Who are the blind, -- teachers or students? Did anyone overhelp? What were the results? How do these types of helping and helplessness compare to the type of helping and helplessness in your classroom? What type of helping fosters active independence? What type of helping inhibits the development of n-Ach?

Listed below are several general types of responses to helplessness and to a helping situation.

THE "HELPLESS"

1. Dependence: He is comfortable with having to depend on the sighted person, and tends to wait to be told what to do before acting or moving. He probably wanted to be guided more physically, and was content to be waited on during the meal. He asked questions of the person guiding him about possible dangers, but was reasonably certain that the guide would not lead him astray.

2. Counter-dependence: He wanted nothing to do with guides or helpers. As a matter of fact, he probably did everything he could to make the guide dependent on him. Perhaps he went for coffee for sighted people, or offered to run some kind of an errand. In any case, he was willing to risk some rather obvious dangers in order to keep from depending on anyone for help.

3. Independence: He wanted to function as much as possible by himself, but realized that there were dangers involved in going completely alone. He asked more for descriptions of the environment and potential dangers from the sighted person , so that he might explore their limits without risk of serious injury. If the situation warranted his complete dependence he could probably adjust to it for

a while, but would want a situation where he would not have to be so dependent.

"THE HELPERS"

1. Over-directive: He wants to be of help in any and every way, and would rather destroy the independence of the person he's helping than risk having that person make an incorrect decision. He serves their plates, tells them exactly where everything is on the plate, and intimates that he will be ready to guide their fork if needed. He may not be able to stand the possibility of someone making a mistake while in his care and may either become more demanding or quiet if his orders are disobeyed. Dependent types like this type of helper.

2. Direction-avoidance: Having the responsibility for a blind person for a couple of hours will be more than he can handle. He will rationalize his unwillingness to get involved by saying "I felt they would feel prouder if they did it by themselves." He will be partially right but there are things he can see that the blind person can't and he could be helpful in developing their confidence in their own abilities. But he doesn't want to get involved. Counter-dependent blind people are a good match with this type of helper.

3. Coaching: He wants his charge to be able to operate on his own, but realizes that sight gives him certain responsibilities. He will probably ask if the person wants help before giving it to him, and, except in the case of obvious dangers, will be inclined to let the helpee explore his environment for himself. He develops a facility for direction that is not directive, letting the blind person know what is about him, without tugging and pulling. If he leads physically, he will make sure

that the blind person grasps his arm and retains control, rather than "grabbing and guiding" and thereby taking control away from the helpee.

In general this exercise allows you to explore the nature and varieties of the helping relationship and to gain an unusual perspective on your normal classroom teaching as a form of helping. The exercise is a good starting point to begin deciding how to structure the helping relationships in the achievement motivation course you will be giving.

When you bring this discussion to a close, you may either go on to session five, or continue with the second part of this exercise. You should only try the second part if you have at least two hours, whether in this session or as a separate session before going on.

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Five

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

SESSION FIVE

PART TWO

TIME: Two hours or more

MATERIALS: None

PURPOSE:
a. to practice verbal helping
b. to get feedback on your helping style
c. to receive help on a real problem

PROCEDURE:

a. Divide group into trios.

b. During the first round, person A will explain a real problem with which he would like help. Person B will be the helper to whom he presents the problem. Person C will observe and summarize his impressions at the end of the round.
(time: 30 minutes, plus ten minutes summary)

c. After the first round, have all trios come back into a larger group and share some of what went on during their session. It is more relevant here to discuss styles of helping rather than the personal problems.
(time: 20 minutes)

d. Go back into the same trios, this time changing roles so that each person has a different one. e.g.-A will be observer, C helper, B helpee.
(time: 30 minutes, plus ten minutes summary)

e. Once again switch roles so that each person is in the role he did not have before.
(time: 30 minutes, plus ten minutes summary)

f. Reconvene the large group. Discuss what happened in your trios until you feel you have closure. Use discussion questions on the next page, if necessary. Remember, though, that the questions are intended as guides, and are not meant to stifle free discussion. A group encounter that deals meaningfully and honestly with how people feel now about their own helping style and those of others will come closer to truth for your situation.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS

1. Was there any difference in the level of involvement in your trio during the first, second, and third rounds?
2. Do you know the people in your trio any better now? Are your feelings about them changed? How?
3. What happened during the exercise that allowed you to see yourself most clearly?
4. Are you happy with the way in which you helped? Could you describe the styles of the other two people in your trio?
5. Are you inclined to be the same way in other situations, such as the classroom?
6. What do you think an effective helping style is?
7. How could you change your own classroom approach so that you would be a better helper?
8. What do you intend to do to become more effective as a helper in the classroom?

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Five-Part 2

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

A BACKWARD LOOK

So far in this workshop we have talked about who we are and what we want from the workshop. We have learned to score TAT's for three types of motive imagery, as well as for the complete n-Ach scoring system. We have experienced in game situations some of the ways people with high n-Ach tend to behave, and had a chance to look at our own scores to see if we tend to behave in a similar fashion.

During the last session we explored several aspects of the helping relationship, and your group discussions probably came to some conclusions about the type of help that fosters n-Ach, conformity, creativity, dependence, etc. Perhaps you have even begun to make some decisions about ways in which you would like to change, whether they involve n-Ach or not.

AND A FORWARD LOOK

During the remainder of this workshop, you will be encouraged to make those decisions a little more concrete and start making them into measurable, moderate-risk goals. Hopefully you will state those goals to the others in the group and get their help in finding ways to measure progress, as well as enlisting their support and encouragement in reaching them. It is important that you do this, as you should experience the goal-setting process before asking your students to do it in your n-Ach course. This will bring us to the last sessions of the workshop during which planning will be done for the n-Ach course you will give. You will get some of the theoretical background of n-Ach courses and have a chance to build your own course around it, developing some specifically appropriate games and exercises.

SESSION SIX

Goal Setting

Introduction

If you can let the writer intrude into your group for a few minutes, he would like to do a little preaching. It would be nice to wave a heady nostrum of n-Ach at people and have them immediately become more active, independent, successful people. There have been millions made on just such nostrums, all promising to magically unleash your hidden potential. There is even a magazine called "Success Digest" published monthly that is no more than hundreds of advertisements for miracles that can be yours for little work and $6.95.

This course, the course you give to your kids, or any other course that is directed towards change, is not effective unless some change results. And change is usually hard work. To develop a muscle you must use it, and that's where the goal-setting phase of the course comes in. The setting and charting of achievement goals makes work more meaningful and real accomplishment much more likely in the future as well.

It is no accident that "Aerobics" is on its way to becoming the best selling,most effective physical fitness book of all time. It takes physical exercise away from the randomness with which most adults engage in it and establishes a complex, scientific goal system that gives you concrete feedback each day. "Aerobics" is also a model for how one can develop achievement motivation through step-by-step progression and work.

The request that you undertake a goal-setting project is not one that is made lightly. It is necessary that you begin the goal-setting process if this course is to have any effect on your life. If you do not go through this process you will know about achievement motivation in the same way you would know about physical fitness if you only read the Aerobics manual. It helps to go through the process yourself.

SESSION SIX

Goal Setting

TIME: About three hours

PURPOSE:

a. to set definite, measurable achievement goals and make plans
b. to get feedback on their appropriateness for you, as well as on their risk level
c. to establish methods of measurement and charting

PROCEDURE:

1. Divide into the same trios you had during the helping exercise.

2. Each person then writes an imaginary news story from a paper. This will be a feature, set five years in the future, about yourself. It should include the reason for the story, and a capsule of your activities in the five years leading up to the story. List all significant events and newsworthy attitudes. One or two handwritten pages should suffice.

3. Person A reads his news story to B and C, who will help him translate his fantasy into two realistic goals: (See instructions for goal-helpers and goal-setting tips on next pages).

4. Arrive at a decision (not necessarily concensus) as to what a short-range goal should be and how one could best measure and chart progress toward it. THE PERSON WHOSE GOAL IT IS MUST BE FULLY SATISFIED WITH THE CHOICE AND THE METHOD OF MEASUREMENT. (Refer to "Goal-setting tips" on following pages)

5. As in the helping exercise, switch roles and repeat 3 and 4.

6. Switch roles once again, and repeat 3 and 4.

7. Reconvene large group and have each person state his goal and his reasons for choosing it, the process that was followed in choosing it, and how it will be charted. This should help those who have been having

difficulty with charting methods.

8. Arrange to have a follow-up meeting of the group some two to four weeks hence, so that it will be possible to share some of the successes and failures and to find reasons, and perhaps to set new goals then.

9. On your own time check out your goal into the scoring system found at the end of this exercise.

INSTRUCTIONS FOR GOAL-HELPERS

In this exercise, the two helpers in each round do not play identical roles. A person is more apt to choose a meaningful goal if he does not accept the first suggestion that comes along. If he can be involved in some conflict over his goal, he is more likely to dig deeper into his problem and come up with goal setting solutions that do not overlook anything.

This is the reason we ask one of the helpers to be very supportive of the person setting the goal. Agree with his diagnoses. Let him know why you think he is correct, but try not to be a wishy-washy Charlie Brown about it. Pick out the things you really think are good about his story and any plans he might be thinking of and support him whole-heartedly on that basis.

The other helper should try to be a mild Devil's Advocate. Let the person know how you think he is avoiding the real issues he should be working on. Don't overplay and start nit-picking over minor points, but try to aim for the real weak points in his story and plan. Don't be afraid to take issue with your fellow helper. Unless the helpers really try to find the positives and negatives on the plan, this can come off as just so much play acting.

GOAL-SETTING TIPS

1. Make sure your goal is involving and meaningful to you. It should represent an area where you want change or improvement. (N)
2. Ask yourself if this represents a low risk, high risk or moderate risk. (HOS, FOF)
3. Phrase your goal statement so that you are competing with a standard of excellence in some way. You must want to do it well (AI)
4. Think about your feelings. Just how bad will you feel if you fail? (FF) Will you feel good if you succeed? (SF) If you don't think you'll feel anything either way pick another goal. That one doesn't mean much to you.

5. Talk it over sincerely and honestly with other two in your trio. They will try to help you from opposite points of view (N) Although there will be conflict, the final choice is yours alone.
6. The "Devil's Advocate" will be trying to make you aware of all the reasons you could expect not to reach your goal. Don't think of this as negativism, but as making sure you are aware of the PO's and WO's.
7. Try to make your plan for keeping track of progress as concrete as possible. Use graph paper if your progress can be charted daily, but, whatever the goal, come up with some kind of graphic representation that will give you daily feedback. If it is a frequency goal, buy a grocery store "totaller" to keep an accurate count. If it's an incremental goal, a mock thermometer might be appropriate. But get something up on your wall where you can see it!

ON YOUR OWN TIME

Write a short story about your goal, using the n-Ach scoring categories. Rearrange and relabel if this sequence doesn't satisfy you:

(AI) ____

____

(N) ____

____

(HOS) ____

____

(FOF) ____

____

(WO) ____

____

(PO) ____

____

(ACT) ____

____

(H) ____

____

(FF) ____

____

(SF) ____

____

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Six

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

SESSION SEVEN

Developing the Action Plan

TIME: Indeterminate. If you are really planning to teach a course to the kids, this will just be the first of many planning sessions. Three hours should be enough for this one, however.

PURPOSE: To begin planning your n-Ach course for students in broad outline.

PROCEDURE: 1. In the large group, write McClelland's twelve guidelines for n-Ach course on a blackboard or on a large pad with magic markers.

2. Begin a group discussion of how the propositions may be implemented, taking them one at a time. Be as free and uninhibited as you can. Have one person act as recorder and write down all ideas, no matter how outlandish they seem (if it is possible to do this on ditto stencils and run them off quickly before part 4 of this exercise, do it and distribute copies to all the small groups).

3. Break into four groups, each with responsibility for discussing and making preliminary suggestions on one of the following groups of propositions:

a. Goal setting: Propositions 1, 8 & 9.
b. Motive syndrome: Propositions 3, 4, & 5.
c. Cognitive supports: Propositions 2,6, & 7.
d. Group supports: Propositions 10, 11 & 12.

Make sure all suggestions are written down for later reference.

(Time: two hours)

5. Be prepared to report your small groups' suggestions at the next session.

HOMEWORK- Read chapters 3 and 4 of this manual and skim through the appendix.

TWELVE GUIDELINES FOR INCREASING n-ACH THROUGH MOTIVATION COURSES*

1. The more reasons an individual has in advance to believe that he can, will, or should develop a motive, the more educational attempts designed to develop that motive are likely to succeed. (Goal setting)

2. The more an individual perceives that developing a motive is consistent with the demands of reality (and reason), the more educational attempts to develop that motive are likely to succeed. (Cognitive supports)

3. The more thoroughly an individual develops and clearly conceptualizes the associative network of thoughts defining the motive, the more likely he is to develop the motive. (Motive syndrome)

4. The more an individual can link the newly developed network to related actions, the more the change in both thought and action is likely to occur and endure. (Motive syndrome)

5. The more an individual can link the newly conceptualized association-action complex (or motive) to events in his everyday life, the more likely the motive complex is to influence his thoughts and actions outside the training experience. (Motive syndrome)

6. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement in his self-image, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions. (Cognitive supports)

7. The more an individual can perceive and experience the newly conceptualized motive as an improvement on prevailing cultural values, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions. (Cognitive supports)

8. The more an individual commits himself to achieving concrete goals in life related to the newly formed motive, the more the motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions. (Goal setting)

9. The more an individual keeps a record of his progress toward achieving goals to which he is committed, the more the newly formed motive is likely to influence his future thoughts and actions. (Goal setting)

---

* David C. McClelland, "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," American Psychologist, Vol. 20, No. 5. May 1965

10. Changes in motives are more likely to occur in an atmosphere in which the individual feels warmly but honestly supported and respected by others as a person capable of guiding and directing his own future behavior. (Group supports)

11. Changes in motives are more likely to occur the more the setting dramatizes the importance of self study and lifts it out of the routine of everyday life. (Group supports)

12. Changes in motives are more likely to occur and persist if the new motive is a sign of membership in a new reference group. (Group supports)

Further elaboration of the evidence behind these propositions may be found in the article from which they were taken (see footnote) and in Chapter four of this manual.

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Seven

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

SESSION EIGHT

Developing New Inputs

TIME: About three hours. This should be seen as an extension of session seven and a second step in planning your course. It should end only after the group has agreed on a time for their next planning meeting.

PURPOSE: a. To begin getting specific about what will actually go on in the course for the kids.
b. To begin creating new inputs (games, teaching methods) for the course you will give.
c. To translate the abstract propositions into action situations.

PROCEDURE:

1. In total group, list the objectives you feel this course should be aimed at.

2. Suggest specific ways the learning of n-Ach could meet those objectives.

3. Divide into the project groups you had for session seven and begin working the objectives of the course into specific inputs into the course. The group that was dealing with goal setting in the last session should formulate specific ways of meeting the objectives through use of the goal-setting propositions, each group doing the same for its area (see next page).

4. Meet back in large group and share plans for implementing objectives and propositions in specific ways.

5. Establish time for next meeting, assign committee responsibilities for coming up with more detailed, integrated plans for that meeting.

ON NEW INPUTS

Most of the games in this workshop and in other sections of this manual were not created by professional psychologists. They are the results of the work of classroom teachers who knew their kids and what would appeal to them.

For your course to have maximum effectiveness on the students, it should be your course and theirs. Wherever possible they should feel as if they have some control over the proceedings, some voice in what is appropriate and what is not. Perhaps they can feel this best if they are given the opportunity to create new inputs themselves through teaching it to someone else.

As long as you are getting at the salient objectives of your course, as you outlined them in this session, you should feel that your freedom to create is unlimited. Use as many of the games in this manual as you would like, but always be thinking of how they might be improved, or how a similar game would be much more appropriate.

The descriptions in chapter 4 and the games in the appendix are meant to give you a wide choice from which to make selections for your unique course. After you have seen the variety of alternatives you may feel more comfortable about creating your own learning games and exercises. This is all a way of saying that we cannot program your creative activities, your initiative or solutions to the problems you face: We do hope, however, that you now feel confident and familiar enough to try your hand at giving an n-Ach course to your students.

EVALUATION SHEET-Session Eight

1. What are your general impressions of the workshop session just concluded? (How involved were you? How interested were you? What are the most important questions that came to you?)

2. How might it have been more effective? What might the next group do differently? What can you do in the next session to make it more effective?

3. What information came out of the last session that will be helpful in preparing the course for the kids?

Chapter 3

Chapter 3

Achievement Motivation, Its History and Impact on History

Alfred Alschuler

Black magic, the medieval devil's art, consisted of mysterious causal relationships between secret words, deeds, potions and other seemingly unrelated events. Yet when we discover scientific explanations for these strange relationships, they are no longer black or magic. A potion derived from the boiled bark of aspin trees, called aspirin today, does reduce a variety of pains in the head. The following statement also sounds like black magic in the 20th century: Certain ideas in man's fantasy life are causally related to the rate of national economic development. Yet this is precisely the claim of Professor David McClelland, a Harvard psychologist who has scientifically traced the relationship between "achievement" fantasies and national economic progress (McClelland, 1961). Supporting empirical evidence was gathered during twenty years of research conducted by Professor McClelland and co-workers around the world. In brief, men who have many achievement fantasies and think about innovating and making things concretely better tend to act in certain special ways. The related action pattern is best described as "entrepreneurial behavior". When there is a relatively high percentage of achievement thinking and entrepreneurial behavior in a country, or, in other words, high achievement motivation, it eventually is reflected in a quickened rate of economic development. One obvious implication is that increasing a man's achievement thinking should cause him to be more energetic, innovative and entrepreneurial. Increasing the amount of achievement thinking in a nation should result in faster national economic progress. This explanation and this possibility may sound distantly plausible and quite oversimplified, so let us take a more detailed look at the research on which these claims are based.

David C. McClelland was trained at Yale in the late 1930's, the same time and place where there was great hope of discovering the laws of learning and motivation through the precise understanding of how other animals learned; and, in practice, these animals usually were rats. Professor Clark Hull of Yale University had carried rigorously systematic empirical research and psychological theory building to its first apex. Though Hull's approach was elegant in its conception and construction, McClelland came to believe that it was not dynamic enough to adequately represent the relative complexity of uniquely human motivation. At the time, in the 1930's and 1940's, the chief rival to Hull's theory was Freud's psychoanalytic theory of personality development and motivation. From McClelland's point of view Freud's theories, though highly relevant to the human condition, lacked rigorous experimental and quantitative support. The task McClelland set for himself was to bring the sophisticated experimental tradition of Hull to the study of dynamic human motivation (McClelland, 1965). It was the integration of these two traditions within psychology which over the last twenty years has resulted in the current training programs to increase individuals' achievement motivation.

DEFINITION AND MEASUREMENT OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

In retrospect, it is not difficult to understand how an interest in human motivation led to an interest in achievement motivation and how this research moved from the laboratory into the field. McClelland's first goal was "to develop a method of measuring individual differences in human motivation (which would be) firmly based on the methodology of experimental psychology and on the psychological insights of Freud and his followers" (McClelland, 1961, p. 39). According to Freud, motivation is evident in the fantasy lives of individuals. Interpretation of dream fantasy is one principal method psychoanalysts use to discover a person's motivations, hidden conflicts, and wishes. Professor Henry Murray's Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) is a second, widely used method of eliciting fantasies of individuals which reveal their dominant motives. The TAT is a set of pictures depicting a variety of common situations. The pictures are ambiguous in the sense that they may be interpreted in many ways. Persons taking the TAT are asked to tell imaginative stories about what is happening, what led up to the situation, what the characters are thinking and feeling and how it will turn out. Murray showed that these imaginative stories, like a person's dreams, reflected his dominant motives. However, both the TAT and dream analysis lacked a rigorous quantitative method of determining the strength and extent to which motives were operating in a person's life. It was here that McClelland integrated the Hullian experimental perspective with the Freudian view by objectively quantifying human motivation reflected in TAT responses.

The first task in devising a method of measuring motivation was to vary the intensity of people's motives and to measure the effects on their imagination or fantasy. Just as Hull had experimentally manipulated drive states in animals (e.g., Hull increased the hunger drive by depriving animals of food for varying lengths of time), McClelland began by experimentally manipulating strength of food motivation in humans. McClelland obtained TAT stories from groups of Navy men who differed in the number of hours for which they had gone without food. The experiments, performed at the U.S. Submarine Base in New London, Connecticut, showed that different degrees of hunger were reflected in different amounts of food imagery in the TAT stories. In other words, fantasy TAT stories could be used to measure the strength of motivation (Atkinson and McClelland, 1948).

The next step was to choose a uniquely human motive, experimentally vary its intensity and identify the resultant changes in TAT fantasies. McClelland chose to study achievement motivation, one of the most interesting motives previously defined by Henry Murray. The intensity of achievement motivation was varied by giving different instructions to groups of individuals just before they wrote their TAT stories. One group was told that people who did well on the fantasy test were successful businessmen and administrators. It was assumed that these instructions would arouse achievement thoughts. The TAT responses of this group were compared to TAT responses of a group given "neutral" instructions and to a third group who were given "relaxed" instructions. The specific kinds of thoughts which were present in the achievement group TAT's and absent in the "neutral"and "relaxed set of TAT's became the operational definition of achievement motivation (McClelland et. al., 1953). Since this definition, or measure, is so critical to an understanding of the subsequent research, it will be presented in some detail here.

A motive is a pattern of thought associated with a type of goal. The achievement motive consists of the cluster of thoughts associated with striving for some kind of excellence, as opposed to the thoughts associated with gaining prestige and influence (power motivation) or the thoughts associated with establishing friendly relationships (affiliation motivation). Thus, a TAT story contains achievement motivation thoughts if, and only if, it includes a stated goal of striving for a standard of excellence. Achievement Goal Imagery (AI) is reflected in any one of the four following ways: competition with others, competition with one's self, striving for some unique accomplishment, and long-term involvement. If a TAT story contains a statement of any of these four types of concerns, the story receives one point. The story below contains an example of the "unique accomplishment" type of achievement imagery.

> The boss is talking to an employee. The boss wants the employee, an engineer, to start working on a specially designed carburetor for a revolutionary engine. The job will come off O.K., and the engine will revolutionize the automobile industry.

If a story contains achievement goal imagery, then the subcategories of achievement thinking are scored, if they are present. This cluster of achievement related thoughts is listed below:

OUTLINE OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION SCORING SYSTEM

N	Stated need for achievement: expression of a desire to reach an achievement goal. "He wants very much to solve the problem."
IA	Instrumental activity: statement that something is being done about attaining an achievement goal. "The man worked hard to sell more books."
Ga+	Positive anticipatory goal state: stated anticipation of success in attaining a goal. "He hopes to become a great surgeon."
Ga-	Negative anticipatory goal state: stated anticipation of failure or frustration. "He thinks he will make a mess of the job."
Bw	World Block: statement that goal-directed activity is obstructed by something in the external world. "His family couldn't afford to send him to college."
Bp	Personal block: statement that progress of goal-directed activity is obstructed by personal deficiencies. "He lacked the confidence to overcome his shyness."
Nup	Nurturant press: statement of someone's aiding or encouraging the person striving for achievement. "His boss encouraged him in his ambitions."
G+	Positive affective state: stated experience of a positive emotional state associated with a definite accomplishment. "He is proud of his acceptance to graduate school."

G- Negative affective state: stated negative emotion associated with failure to attain an achievement goal. "He is disgusted with himself for his failure."

Ach Th Achievement thema: the major plot or theme of the story is achievement, rather than affiliation or power.

The following is an example of a typical story produced in response to a TAT picture:

> A student is trying to answer questions on an exam and is finding the test too difficult to do as well as he had wanted. The student is not stupid, but he has a girl and didn't study as hard as he should have. He is unhappy that he didn't study harder, and hopes he has acceptable answers. He would cheat, but it is an honor exam, and he has too much character. He will get a "D" on the exam and will turn over a new leaf and devote the proper time to study.

Score: AI, IA, Bp, G-, Ga+, Ach. Thema = total 6 points.

The preceding, although a necessarily brief account of the scoring system indicates its nature as an intellectual junction of two customarily separate psychologies, Hullian and Freudian, and summarizes what achievement motivation is.*

It is clear that achievement motivation as defined above is not identical with our traditional notion of achievement as observable accomplishments, e.g., high test scores, attaining prestigious elected office, earning a high salary. Achievement motivation (hereafter designated n-Ach for the "need to achieve") is a spontaneously occurring pattern of thoughts in an individual which is focused on excellence, progress, doing things better, faster, more efficiently, doing something unique, or, in general, competing. These characteristic thoughts may result in a wide variety of activities depending on the specific situation in which they occur. However, n-Ach is the pattern of thoughts which leads to actions, not the actions or accomplishments per se. Thus, for example, a long distance runner, gourmet chef, organ pipe cleaner and architect all may have equally high achievement motivation. From this point of view there is no such species as an "underachiever", only individuals who may not have a particularly high number of spontaneous n-Ach thoughts. Nor will increasing n-Ach inevitably lead to becoming a businessman or entrepreneur. Increased n-Ach may result in a variety of specific increased concerns for excellence.

---

*For more exhaustive accounts of the development of the coding scheme, and of the vigorous methodological examinations which it has undergone, the reader is referred to chapters 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, in Atkinson, 1958; Brown, 1965; Klinger, 1966; Birney, 1959; Kagan & Moss, 1959.

THE SPIRIT OF HERMES: PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS of PEOPLE WITH HIGH n-ACH

Having objectively defined n-Ach, and established its reliability as a measure, McClelland opened the door to the hitherto neglected area of empirical research on motivation. In the years following McClelland's original research, hundreds of studies were conducted to explore further the nature, relevance, and effects of achievement motivation. Several of these studies had a particularly significant impact on McClelland's subsequent theorizing and research. Researchers discovered that individuals with high achievement motivation tend to act in certain characteristic ways:

1. Such individuals tend to set carefully calculated moderate-risk goals in which their efforts are neither doomed to failure or are guaranteed of success. They choose challenging goals where the outcome is most uncertain (McClelland, 1958; Atkinson & Litwin, 1960; McClelland, 1955; Atkinson, et. al., 1960).

2. Individuals with high achievement motivation prefer situations in which they can obtain immediate, concrete feedback to evaluate just how well they are doing (French, 1958;

Moss & Kagan, 1961).

3. They prefer situations in which they can take personal responsibility for the outcomes of their efforts. They like to control their own destinies through their own action, initiative, and innovations (French, 1958; McClelland, et. al., 1953, pp. 286, 287).

McClelland hypothesized that the pattern which emerges from these action strategies is very often characteristic of the energetic, entrepreneurial character type. He found a close fit between these empirically derived action strategies and the characteristics of entrepreneurs as described by economic and social theoreticians: namely, moderate risk taking; energetic and novel instrumental activity directed toward specific goals; desire for immediate, concrete knowledge of the results of actions; preference for situations in which personal responsibility is crucial rather than fate, chance or luck; and skill at making long-range plans (McClelland, 1961, chapter 6). Persuasive as this descriptive fit may be, it required further empirical documentation. Such evidence came from two sources. Using the Alumni records of college students who took the TAT some fifteen years earlier, McClelland (1966) found that almost all of the alumni in entrepreneurial roles had high n-Ach scores fifteen years earlier. Conversely, almost none of these active, energetic men had low n-Ach scores. This is a rather remarkable finding considering the comparative lack of longitudinal research in psychology and the typically low predictive power of most psychological tests. Consider the fact that a half hour sampling of thoughts of college students predicted career activity fifteen years later! As further documentation of these results, Clayton (1965) studied the career progress of men who had received graduate degrees in business administration. Clayton found that men relatively higher in n-Ach earned larger salaries and possessed greater net worth.

Another set of studies documents the association of n-Ach with entrepreneurship. The archetype entrepreneur in Greek mythology is Hermes as described in the "Homeric Hymn to Hermes", written around 520 B.C. when Athenian n-Ach was high compared with later periods. In this hymn Hermes is described as innovator, inventor, businessman, concerned with getting ahead in the world as fast as possible. By constructing a lyre from a tortoise shell he made a great fortune. Nor was Hermes above trickery. "Born in the morning, in the noonday he performed on the lyre, in the evening he stole the cattle of the archer god Apollo"* Then Hermes swore to Apollo and Zeus that he, the newborn babe was innocent. "The real point of the story is its realistic reflection of the conflict which was going on between the traditional propertied classes, represented by Apollo, and the neuveaux riches merchant class, who adopted Hermes as their patron. In such a conflict the merchants were clearly the aggressors, just as Hermes is, in their demands for a greater share of the wealth and higher social status." (McClelland, 1961, p. 303). Hermes makes technological innovations, embodies restless energy, motion, little waste of time, and strives for higher status and greater wealth.

The empirical question is whether these and other aspects of Hermes' life style also are characteristic expressive styles of people with high n-Ach. Based on research by Aronson (1958), McClelland concluded that restless (nonrepetitive, discrete) doodles are characteristic of high n-Ach individuals. High n-Ach individuals see time as short and passing rapidly (Green and Knapp, 1959; Knapp and Green, 1960); they are anxious about the passage of time and don't feel they have enough time (Knapp, 1960): they have a longer future time perspective (Rickes and

---

*from N.O. Brown, Hermes, the Thief, Madison, Wisconsin, University of Wisconsin Press, 1942.

Epley, 1960), show greater anticipation of the future (McClelland et. al., 1953, p. 250) and are oriented toward longer range goals (Mischel, 1960). Like Hermes, the winged-foot messenger of the gods and patron of travelers, high n-Ach people, and peoples, travel more, more widely, explore further and have higher rates of emigration (McClelland, 1961, pp. 313-317). A variety of data suggest that high n-Ach is related to upward social mobility (McClelland, 1961, pp. 317-322; Crockett, 1962). Just as Hermes was a supurb athlete, cultures with high levels of n-Ach tend to have more competitive games and sports (McClelland, 1961). In short, many of the life style traits of people with high n-Ach bear a striking resemblance to the character of Hermes, the entrepreneur.

Although interesting as an empirical study of a mythological character type, this research has greatest value in filling out our picture of what a person is like who has high n-Ach. It helps suggest why a country with a comparatively large number of high n-Ach individuals will tend to develop economically more rapidly. Other research also is consistent with this picture of the high n-Ach individual. McClelland et al (1953) found a correlation between n-Ach and school grades of college students. Several other researchers have found small but significant positive relationships between n-Ach and academic performance of superior high school students, (Uhlinger & Stephens, 1960). "Underachievers", on the other hand, appear to have very low achievement motivation (Burgess, 1956; Garrett, 1949; Gebhart & Hoyt, 1958). Morgan (in Atkinson and Feather, 1966) showed that in equal ability grouped classrooms, n-Ach was strongly related to grades attained. N-Ach is positively correlated with persistence at difficult tasks (Feather, 1966). There is a low significant correlation between n-Ach and intelligence in college students as measured by I.Q. tests (McClelland, 1961). In the psychological jargon, n-Ach has great "relational fertility." Intuitively, this large cluster of related attributes forms a picture of great energy, restless striving for excellence, concern with getting things done quickly and well, interest in innovation and creative solutions to difficult practical problems in which the results are tangible.

THE ORIGINS AND CONSEQUENCES OF ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

An equally important question to answer concerns the factors which encourage the development of n-Ach in individuals. There are many approaches to this question. Undoubtedly cultural values, status structure systems, educational processes, peer group interactions and child-rearing practices all influence the development of n-Ach. Most is known, however, about the impact of child-rearing practices and cultural values.

Winterbottom studied the parents of thirty middle-class boys, aged 8-10 (as reported in McClelland, et. al., 1953, pp. 297-304). After determining the strength of n-Ach in these boys, Winterbottom examined the child-rearing practices of the parents. She found that the mothers of boys with high achievement motivation (1) tended to set higher standards for their children, (2) expected independence and mastery behavior to occur at an earlier age than did the mothers of boys with low achievement motivation, and (3) more often were affectively rewarding -- i.e., kissing and hugging were more common rewards. Additional corroboration for this relationship between child-rearing patterns and levels of children's achievement motivation was obtained in several other studies. Rosen and D'Andrade (1959) studied parents and children in six different American ethnic groups and varying social classes: French-Canadian, Italian, Greek, Negro, Jewish, and "Old American Yankee." Despite complex class differences, Rosen and D'Andrade found that self-reliance training promotes high n-achievement, provided the training does not reflect generalized authoritarianism or rejection by the parents.

These results were extended in cross-cultural research done by Child, Storm, and Veroff (McClelland, et. al., 1953). They reasoned that child-rearing patterns reflected pervasive cultural values. To establish this relationship, Child, et. al. collected ethnographic data on child-rearing practices from thirty-three cultures. The measure of cultural values was obtained from an analysis of the folk tales of the thirty-three cultures, since folk tales also are told to children during the socialization process. Child et. al., found that cultures in which there was direct training for achievement also had folk tales with high levels of achievement motivation. On the other hand, cultures which are characterized by rigid or restrictive child-rearing practices (punishing children for failure to be obedient and responsible) have folk tales with relatively low levels of achievement motivation. The research of Child, et. al. confirms in large part an earlier study by McClelland and Friedman (1952).

These studies describe an important social-psychological pattern. Certain cultural values are reflected in child-rearing practices which foster high achievement motivation in children. Further, high achievement motivation in a child often crystallizes into an entrepreneurial personality and subsequent career as a manager or administrator. It was at this point in the research that McClelland placed these findings into a larger theoretical context. Weber (1930 edition) had discussed the relationship between the pervasiveness of the Protestant ethic and the rise of capitalism. McClelland suggested a social-psychological interpretation for Weber's hypothesis. The Protestant ethic represented a stress upon independence, self-reliance, and hard work -- the achievement values which McClelland had shown to result eventually in entrepreneurial activity. McClelland reasoned further that increases and decreases in these cultural values should herald subsequent increases in economic activity. Potentially this hypothesis provided a psychological explanation for the economic flourishing and decay of nations throughout history.

The research documenting this interpretation of economic history is presented in great detail in McClelland's book, The Achieving Society. Only two key studies presented in this book will be described here. In the first, McClelland compared the economic productivity in 1950 of all the Catholic and Protestant countries in the temperate zone. The average economic productivity of the twelve Protestant countries was compared to the average economic productivity of the thirteen Catholic countries. The measure used to compare economic productivity was the kilowatt hours of electricity consumed per capita. There was a striking difference in favor of the Protestant countries. In the second key study, McClelland obtained measures of the level of achievement motivation in twenty-two countries both in 1925 and in 1950 by counting the frequency of achievement themes in samples of third and fourth grade readers. Three measures of the gain in economic productivity were obtained for the period 1925 to 1950: (1) change in national income as measured in international units per capita (Clark, 1957), (2) change in kilowatt hours per capita of electricity produced, and (3) a combination of the above two measures of change. Levels of achievement motivation in 1925 and 1950 were correlated with the degree of deviation from the expected economic gains.

Correlations of Reader n-Achievement Scores with Deviations from Expected Economic Gains (Courtesy of D. Van Nostrand Co. Inc., The Achieving Society, p. 92)

n-Achievement Level by Year	IU/cap 1925-1950 (N=22)	Kwh/cap 1929-1950 (N=22)	Both Combined (N=21)
1925	.25	.53 ($p < .01$)pd	.46 ($p < .02$)pd
1950	-.10	.03	-.08

pd-predicted direction

This table shows that the level of achievement motivation in 1925 predicts the rate of economic development from 1925 to 1950, while the level of achievement motivation in 1950 does not correlate with the rate of economic productivity for the same period. This striking confirmation of McClelland's theory was extended in several subsequent research studies. Levels of achievement motivation were measured in the literature of Spain and England from the 1500's through the 1800's. In both cases, the rise and fall of achievement motivation preceded the rise and fall of economic productivity by about 25 to 50 years. Similar relationships were obtained for achievement motivation levels and economic productivity in Greece from 900 to 100 B.C. and Pre-Incan Peru from about 800 B.C. to 700 A.D., further supporting McClelland's hypothesis (McClelland, 1961, ch. 4).

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION IN PERSPECTIVE

Although the research on n-Ach is impressive in quantity, quantitativeness and ingenuity, it is not the only human motive to be studied and not necessarily the most important one. N-Ach was chosen from among over twenty theoretically discrete motives described by Henry Murray (1938). A number of these motives have received systematic attention, especially the need for affiliation (n-Aff) and the need for power (n-Pow). N-Aff, for example, shows rather complex relationships between birth rate, infant mortality rate and also economic development (McClelland, 1961, p. 164). N-Power, as measured by coding children's readers, is not related to the rate of economic growth. However, if n-Pow is relatively high in a country, while n-Aff is relatively low, that country tends to be pre-disposed to an authoritarian regime. McClelland obtained comparative figures on n-Aff and n-Pow in 1925 and 1950 for a total of 63 cases. (Since most countries were measured both in 1950 and 1925, the actual number of countries is about half the total number of cases). Of the 12 examples of ruthless police states in the sample, all but one were above the mean in n-Pow and below the mean in n-Aff (McClelland, 1961, p. 168). In 1950, the United States was relatively high in n-Pow. It is comforting to know that n-Aff was also quite high in 1950, thus mitigating against the ruthless use of power. From the point of view of this chapter, the important thing to realize is that high n-Ach, n-Aff or n-Pow does not make a man, or country, better or worse than others. More important than any one motive alone is the configuration of motive strengths. Also, there are many other valuable human goals such as piety, creativity and aesthetic concerns that are not correlated with the motives mentioned above.

A second important fact to understand is that we have been discussing "operant" n-Ach, not "respondent" n-Ach. Operant n-Ach occurs even when there are no particularly strong external stimuli, cues, or demands for it to operate. It is, in other words, a spontaneously occuring, self-chosen, freely used motive. N-Ach is respondent when it has to be demanded by the particular environment before it comes to the surface. What this means is that most people, even if their operant n-Ach is very low, can work quite effectively when the situation demands achievement thinking and action from them. As measured, if a person's n-Ach is low, it means only that his operant n-Ach is low, not that the person is incapable of working effectively and appropriately in achievement oriented situations. The crucial difference in high n-Ach countries and individuals is that it is a dominant concern without explicit situational demands, a preoccupation, perhaps even an obsession, which fills daydreams, night dreams and many moments every day.

Third, the explanation of economic growth presented by McClelland is plausible, substantiated empirically in large measure; but, in itself, it is not the complete and final answer to the riddles of why some countries develop their economies more rapidly. For example, the description of child-rearing practices conducive to the development of n-Ach is a bare bones delineation and, further, may simply be correlated with increased n-Ach rather than being the cause of it. The exact nature and impact of schooling on n-Ach has never received detailed extensive treatment empirically. Similarly, the function of peer group interaction in the early school years, the influence of industrial recruitment and management practices, and the impact of the social structure status systems, are important in developing achievement motivation. Yet less attention has been given to these influences.* In short, probably there is as much not known about n-Ach, its origins and impact, as what is known. Nevertheless, in this era where practical social problems demand solutions before the final answers are known, it seems worthwhile to search for methods of increasing n-Ach.

HOW TO INCREASE N-ACH THROUGH PSYCHOLOGICAL EDUCATION COURSES

In the final chapter of The Achieving Society, McClelland summarized the voluminous n-Ach research in terms of several recommendations for accelerating a country's rate of economic development. Although true to the supporting empirical research, these suggestions were both utopian and impractical, requiring nothing less than breaking the culture's orientation to tradition, increasing other-directedness and market morality, decreasing father dominance, fostering feminist movements, encouraging new religious movements similar to the Protestant reformation, increasing achievement themes in popular cultural literature, and providing for a more efficient allocation and use of existing n-Ach resources. These suggestions can be considered hypotheses subject to empirical test in a "social environment". At the very least, this would require two countries, only one of which would benefit from the implementation of these national policy goals. At the end of the experiment the psychologist-social reformer would compare national economic statistics of the two countries to see if the policies worked. Obviously, these ideas are the fantasies of a scientist, not the plans of a politician. McClelland realized this as well as the fact that prediction and control are the two ultimate criteria for a theory's validity. By the second criterion, his theory had not been tested. Thus, McClelland reformulated the problem as follows: national economic statistics reflect the combined efforts of, among many factors, individual entrepreneurs. If the n-Ach of individual men can be increased, there should be a resultant increase in their success and accomplishments as entrepreneurs. This is a more manageable problem, the problem to which McClelland and co-workers have addressed themselves in the last several years.

---

*For a more elaborate critique of this point the reader is referred to the last section of Roger Brown's chapter on n-Ach in his book Social Psychology, chap. 9. In general, the two best summaries of the research on n-Ach are Roger Brown's chapter, just cited, and Heckhausen's book, Anatomy of Achievement Motivation.

If achievement motivation is a cause of entrepreneurial activity, then increasing n-Ach in individuals should lead to demonstrable increases in their entrepreneurial behavior. This means, first instilling the spirit of Hermes, teaching men to be more often concerned with excellence and to adopt achievement related action strategies in pursuing their goals. All of these elements of achievement motivation are well specified, thus making the task a straightforward teaching problem. Manageable as this may sound, there is very little evidence in the professional literature indicating that motivation can be increased, especially in adults. The prevailing pessimism is strong. Most psychologists believe that to be even minimally successful requires tremendous effort over a long period of time. In fact this pessimism extends to practically all traditional methods of changing personality. Most psychoanalysts believe that character is formed by the age of five and remains substantially unchanged thereafter. Empirical research on motivation, including n-Ach, shows that it is relatively stable over a number of years (Skolnik, 1966, Birney, 1959, Moss and Kagan, 1961); almost all forms of psychotherapy are equally ineffective for adults (Eyesenck, 1961), and for children (Levitt, 1957). These studies show that 60-70% get better even if they are not treated. This is equally true for counselling and tutorial programs (e.g., Cambridge-Somerville Youth Project; see McCord, 1964). Given these beliefs and data, to significantly increase n-Ach in adults would be akin to pulling a family of rabbits out of a truly empty hat.

The possibility of changing personality, or of increasing motivation is not a dead issue. In a different tradition, missionaries of many faiths continue in a spirit of optimism to convert people. Within the field of psychotherapy there is evidence that "behavior modification therapy" is comparatively more effective (Wolpe, 1958). This approach to change argues that all behavior is learned, that symptoms can be un-learned and other healthier behaviors learned, or taught (Bandura and Walters,1963; Wolpe, 1952). Contrary to most other forms of psychotherapy, Behavior Modification attempts to change very specifically defined symptoms, not the total personality pattern. Psychoanalysts have argued that this approach is superficial and that the removal of symptoms without curing the "causes" will lead to new symptoms which take the place of the old ones. However, Baker (1966) demonstrated in a study of Behavior Modification Therapy for bed wetters that the technique was relatively effective, that there was not a substitution of symptoms and, in addition, that other traits not related to bed wetting also seemed to improve. Perhaps the most interesting aspect of Behavior Modification Therapy is its new strategy for change. In each individual case the goals are objective, limited and measurable aspects of behavior. For any given goal several re-learning procedures are used (Wolpe & Lazarus, 1967).

McClelland's strategy for change is similar. Many methods are used to increase the salience and frequency of n-Ach thoughts and actions. The goal is to increase the strength of n-Ach, not to create n-Ach where none existed before. It is assumed that every individual has within his thought processes a number of different thought patterns, or motives. Men differ in the salience of these motives within them. Each individual has a relatively unique hierarchy of motives. The motives highest in the hierarchy occur most often and are associated with the greatest number of situational cues. In this sense they are the strongest motives. The aim of n-Ach courses is to raise achievement motivation within the existing hierarchy by increasing the number of situational cues to which it is tied.

> If one thinks of a motive as an associative network, it is easier to imagine how one might go about changing it. The problem becomes one of moving its position up on the hierarchy by increasing its salience compared to other clusters. It should be possible to accomplish this end by such tactics as: (a) setting up the network - discovering what associations, for example, exist in the achievement area and then extending, strengthening, or otherwise "improving" the network they form; (b) conceptualizing the network - forming a clear and conscious construct that labels the network; (c) tying the network to as many cues as possible in everyday life, especially those preceeding and following action, to insure that the network will be regularly rearoused once formed; and (d) working out

> the relation of the network to superordinate associative clusters, like the self-concept, so that these dominant schemata do not block the train of achievement thoughts - for example, through a chain of interfering associations (e.g., "I am not really the achieving type"). McClelland, 1965, p. 322.

Stated in this way, increasing achievement motivation is more like strengthening a weak muscle than it is like pulling canaries out of thin air.

In order to maximize the chances of increasing n-Ach, McClelland decided to use any and all procedures for change which had some support in the research literature.. Four areas of research were surveyed to identify these techniques: animal learning research, human learning experiments, experience with different types of psychotherapy, and attitude change research literature. Based on this literature search, McClelland formulated 12 propositions or guidelines for constructing an effective motive arousal course (McClelland, 1965; McClelland & Winter, 1969 in press). Although relevant to n-Ach, these 12 guidelines should be equally applicable to increasing any motive. The result of this eclectic approach to change is a course more closely resembling multi-media instruction in a classroom, than traditional forms of psychotherapy conducted by dialogue in a small consulting room. The change agent is more like a teacher than psychotherapist; the subjects are more like students than patients. For the sake of clarity the 12 dimensions of this new type of training program will be described under four main headings: Motive Syndrome, Goal Setting, Cognitive Supports and Emotional Supports.

Increasing the Motive Syndrome

Suppose a man jumps into the frigid waters of Lake Michigan on New Years Day. This action could reflect deep depression, daring, heroism or drunkenness. Obviously we must know the thoughts and goals of this person before we interpret his behavior. Yet for the fullest understanding we must know about the situation which eventuated in the chilling leap. Was there a drowning child in the water? Did the man have a large bet on his performance? Did his wife just leave him? Or was he trying to overwhelm a monstrous hangover with fresh cold water? We must know the behavior, thoughts and context before we can claim to understand what happened. Similarly, in increasing a motive (a cluster of thoughts related to a certain type of goal), we must also tie it to certain actions and life contexts. Increasing the n-Ach motive syndrome means, 1. clarifying and labeling the cluster of n-Ach thoughts by teaching the scoring system; 2. relating these thoughts to appropriate action strategies (moderate risk taking, initiative, using concrete feedback etc.); and 3. tying these thoughts and actions to appropriate life contexts (e.g., entrepreneurial type situations). To the degree that this syndrome is clarified, made salient, sensible, and relevant, the motive will be strengthened.

There are numerous specific procedures for accomplishing these course goals. Students can be taught to score their own TAT stories and subsequently to code their own spontaneous thought, television programs, newspaper editorials, folk tales, comic books and conversations. The critical task is to clearly conceptualize and label n-Ach thoughts so that they will be difficult to forget. The action strategies can be taught didactically, but this is less direct than learning through game simulations in which n-Ach action strategies are most adaptive and rewarded. In this way students learn, practice and see the results of using these strategies in situations where the real life consequences are not severe enough to prohibit experimentation-learning. Group discussions help clarify how and why these action strategies are natural outgrowths of the n-Ach patterns of thought. Through the analysis of case studies, lectures by successful men, and discussions of the student's own life situation, the ideas and actions are tied to real life contexts. Other methods of teaching could be used as well: Video tapes, programmed text units, tape-slide units, movies, etc. When traditional academic teaching is considered from this perspective, it seems clear that only learning and clarifying thoughts is emphasized. The thoughts would be more meaningful and persistent if an explicit attempt was made to demonstrate their action consequences and applications to daily living.

Goal Setting

What differentiates n-Achievement from n-Power, n-Affiliation, n-Harm avoidance or any other motive is first and foremost the nature of the goal: striving for excellence as opposed to influence, friendship, or avoiding pain. A man may be in business, may be taking initiative, using feedback, etc., and still be more concerned with having friends than improving his business. A politician may see influence as the means to attaining needed reforms which promote various kinds of excellence. In every case the goals define the motive. This is reflected in the scoring system in that Achievement Imagery (AI) must exist before any of the subcategories may be scored. In n-Ach courses students learn to set achievement goals. They practice n-Ach goal setting.

Goal setting is encouraged in three major ways. Before the course proper begins, participants are told about n-Ach, the impressive research findings, the results of previous courses, the experiences of successful entrepreneurs and the convictions of prestigious academicians associated with well-known universities. Every attempt is made before the course begins to develop the belief in participants that they can and will increase their concern with excellence. This effort is based on research which shows that expectations very often are self-fulling prophesies. To the degree that a man believes something is possible and desirable, he will make it happen. Thus from the beginning of the course this belief in the value of achievement goal setting is fostered.

The culmination of the course also focuses on goal setting in two additional ways. Participants are encouraged to examine their life and to formulate an achievement goal to which they publically commit themselves within the group. In this way participants concretize their goals and obligate themselves to attaining those goals. In addition they commit themselves to obtaining regular, careful specific measures of their progress. This record keeping provides concrete feedback, reinforcement, a way of locating blocks and solutions, and in general, an opportunity to engage in continued planning. The precise goals are chosen by the participants, since they should be individually relevant. This goal setting strategy is reminiscent of coming forth and taking the pledge at the end of a revival meeting. Whether or not students "take the pledge" seriously, depends primarily on what has happened in the course between the introductory "pitch" and the pledge to achievement goals. During this intervening time students are not swept off their feet in a wave of emotion. They carefully consider and analyze the implications of increasing their n-Ach. A carefully considered decision not to increase their n-Ach is equally acceptable.

Cognitive Supports

No change in life style or pattern of thought is without problems and conflicts. Inevitably the adoption of increased achievement thinking and actions raises other issues regarding ideals, values, and eithics. These too must be considered in n-Achievement courses if the change is to be satisfying and integrated. More specifically, course participants are encouraged to consider 1. to what degree achievement motivation meets the demands of reality in an increasingly specialized and professional world; 2. how the spirit of Hermes fits with their image of who they are and what kind of person they would like to be; and 3. in what ways the values of achievement fit with their dominant cultural values. These issues can be raised in a variety of ways, but typically have included periods of meditation, group discussions of self images and ideals, discussions of cultural values as expressed in religious books and folk lore, and discussion of research showing the relationship of achievement motivation to economic development. The role of the trainer during these discussions is that of an informed but impartial resource who is committed more to careful consideration than to convincing and persuading. Often this results in some individual counselling. At other times the trainer simply is silent or a good listener. Implicit in this examination is an open choice. Participants are free to choose not to strengthen their n-Ach. The aim is to promote a clear and strong choice for or against.

Emotional Supports

As described thus far, the n-Ach course is highly rational. Emphasis has been placed on clear cognitive labeling, articulation of action strategies, understanding the research, and analysis of related larger issues. Obviously, humans are not simply thinking machines into which a new "computer program" can be inserted. Achievement Motivation also is the excitement of challenge, the joy of working hard for a goal, often the frenzy of trying to meet a deadline, the pride in innovating, the fear of failure and disappointment at not succeeding. Through the game simulations, course participants have an opportunity to experience and consider their emotional responses to achievement situations. Yet in another way, n-Ach courses provide an emotional climate which allows for change. Usually, the courses are held in retreat settings which take the participants away from the daily pressures and demands of work, family and friends. Besides fostering a feeling of unusual priviledge, it allows time for serious emotional self confrontation. The other group members, all of whom share this unique experience, begin to form a new group identity with new ties of friendship and feeling which lasts beyond the brief course. The new reference group can act as a continued stimulus to and reinforcement of what was learned during the course. One of the key functions of the trainer is to encourage this group formation, not as its leader, but as a catalyst. The trainers style is "non-directive", open, warm and accepting, consistent with the posture of client-centered therapists. This, too, allows participants to face increasingly deeper emotional issues raised by the course.

THE RESULTS OF N-ACH COURSES

The goal of n-Ach training may seem valuable and the strategy of increasing n-Ach may sound reasonable, but the proof of its utility must come from empirical research. Is n-Ach training effective? Is it more effective than other types of training? What are the effects?

N-Ach courses have been given to many types of people around the world in the last five years: businessmen in India, Spain, Japan, Mexico and the United States, high school and college students, Peace Corps Volunteers and teachers. Many, but not all of these courses have been evaluated. Typically the course participants are followed for at least a year and a half in order to identify the long-term impact of the courses. In general the results are encouraging but not universally positive or consistently spectacular. At most, the data warrent cautious optimism. Nevertheless, it is clear that popular demand for this type of training is so great that n-Ach courses will continue to be requested and given far in advance of its proven validity in many contexts. Before making further comments on the ethics of social intervention and social science research, let us look more carefully at some of the specific n-Ach follow-up studies.

In 1962 a five day n-Ach course was given to 16 mid-level executives in a large, dynamic American corporation (Litwin & Aronoff, 1966). The results of the n-Ach course were compared to the impact of the company's own month long management training course for a carefully matched comparison group. Two years after the course the rates of advancement of both groups of men were assessed. Unusual advancement consisted of a significant increase in job responsibility and/or more than a 10% increase in salary. By this measure the men who had taken the n-Ach course had advanced significantly more rapidly. These data are for 11 men of the original 16 in the course. Five men were no longer with the company, thus were dropped from the follow-up study. One can only speculate about this 31% drop out rate. Did the restless spirit of Hermes move them to bigger and better jobs elsewhere? Did they go into business themselves? Did they find that advancement within the company was inevitably too slow? A potential negative side effect of the n-Ach course, from the company's point of view may be that fostering independence and initiative may decrease committment to the parent organization.

In 1963 three n-Ach courses were given to 34 businessmen in Bombay, India (McClelland, 1965). The comparison group of businessmen consisted of 11 randomly chosen men who had applied for the course. Table (A) presents the data on the number and percentage of men in each group who were unusually active two years before and two years after the course. "Unusual activity" was measured in essentially the same way as measured by Litwin and Aronoff (1966).

TABLE A

Number of Bombay businessmen who engaged in "Unusual Entrepreneurial Activity" before and after an n-Ach course.

	Two years before the n-Ach course	Two years after the n-Ach course
n-Ach course participants (N = 30)*	8 (27%)	20 (67%)
"No treatment" control subjects (N =11)	2 (18%)	3 (27%)

*information available on only 30 of 37 in 1965

The group percentage of unusual entrepreneurial activity did not increase significantly among the control group. However, unusual entrepreneurial activity did increase significantly among the men who took the course ($x^2 = 11.2$, $p < .01$) (McClelland, 1965).

A second set of four courses was given to 52 businessmen in Kakinada, India in 1964. Thirteen men (25%) had been unusually active in the two years before the course; thirty-four men (65%) were unusually active in the first year following the course ($x^2 = 17.1$, $p < .01$) (McClelland, 1965). These men have been followed from 1964 through the spring of 1967. In addition, comparison groups of businessmen from neighboring towns who did not take the course also have been followed. Data indicate that about 50% of the course participants have continued to be unusually active, whereas the spontaneous rate

3

of unusual business activity among non-course participants is in the 25-35% range (Lasker, 1966). Other measures of the impact of the courses have been obtained. For example, the Indian Government figures indicate that for every Rupee it invests, it receives in return, about 2/3 of a Rupee. In contrast the increase in new investment capital generated since 1964 by the men who took the course is six times the original cost of the course, or a return of 6 Rupees for every Rupee invested in the course.*

Impressive as these statistics may be, they do not convey the impact on the lives of the men who took the courses and the consequences for those living with and around these men. As an illustration, McClelland (1965) presents the following case study.

> A short time after participating in one of our courses in India, a 47-year-old businessman rather suddenly decided to quit his excellent job and go into the construction business on his own in a big way. A man with some means of his own, he had had a very successful career as employee-relations manager for a large oil firm. His job involved adjusting management-employee difficulties, negotiating union contracts, etc. He was well-to-do, well thought of in his community, but he was restless because he found his job increasingly boring. At the time of the course his original n-Achievement score was not very high and he was thinking of retiring and living in England where his son was studying. In an interview, 8 months later, he said the course had served not so much to "motivate" him but to "crystallize" a lot of ideas he had vaguely or half consciously picked up about work and achievement all through his life. It provided him with a new language (he still talked in terms of standards of excellence, blocks, moderate risk, goal anticipation, etc.), a new construct which served to organize those

---

*The results of this research along with other yield data will be presented in a book by David C. McClelland and David G. Winter, Developing an Achieving Society, 1969 in press.

> ideas and explain to him why he was bored with his job, despite his obvious success. He decided he wanted to be an n-Achievement-oriented person, that he would be unhappy in retirement, and that he should take a risk, quit his job, and start in business on his own. He acted on his decision and in 6 months had drawn plans and raised over $1,000,000 to build the tallest building in his large city to be called the "Everest Apartments." He is extremely happy in his new activity because it means selling, promoting, trying to wangle scarce materials, etc. His first building is partway up and he is planning two more.

All of the adult n-Ach courses for which follow-up data is available are presented in McClelland and Winter's book, Developing an Achieving Society, (1969, in press). After surveying these research n-Ach courses the authors conclude that n-Ach training is only effective for those men who were "in charge" when they took the course. These were men who held positions with greater decision-making freedom, greater room for initiative and a greater opportunity to use what they learned. This does suggest that n-Ach training is not appropriate for everyone in all situations.

Consider for a moment some of the implications of these results and this case study. The United States is engaged in enormous foreign aid programs ranging from the shipment abroad of dollars, equipment, food stuffs and Peace Corps Volunteers. A major assumption behind this aid is that increased opportunities will foster more rapid economic progress. Achievement motivation training represents a radical alternative. The investment is made in men instead of materials, in motivation rather than in opportunities. The aid is highly focused on key individuals, and thus is relatively inexpensive compared to programs which attempt to feed an entire nation. The foreign policy implications of this training is described in detail elsewhere (McClelland, 1962). McClelland does not propose to substitute n-Ach for food stuffs, but rather to indicate a viable new form of aid that could be administered, perhaps, by the Peace Corps Volunteers to the students of underdeveloped nations. N-Ach courses have been given to students as well. Burris (1958) counselled two groups of under-achieving Indiana University students. For the first group he provided non-directive, Rogerian counselling in which the issues, feelings and reasons for poor work were discussed. The second group was taught the n-Ach scoring system and were counselled on the application of these ideas to the student's life. By present standards, for n-Ach courses, this was an incomplete course. A third group of matched students acted as a "no treatment-control group" for the other two treatment conditions. Burris found that the college grades of the n-Ach group improved significantly more than those of the "non-directive" and "no treatment" groups.

Kolb (1965) gave an n-Ach course to bright, underachieving, high school boys enrolled in an intensive remedial summer school program at Brown University. Twenty of the 57 boys in the summer program were chosen randomly to receive the additional motivational training. The remaining 37 boys served as the control group. The results of the training are summarized below:

1. At the end of the summer there were no significant differences in change between the two groups in summer school grades, Stanford Achievement Test scores or level of anxiety, as measured by the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, and the Mandler-Soiason Test anxiety scale.

2. Subsequent Change in School Grades

Mean Change in Total Grade Point Average

	Experimental Group	Control Group	p[b]
6 months after the course	+6.3 (N = 18)[a]	+4.1 (N = 31)	N.S.
18 months after the course	+7.1 (N = 12)	+2.1 (N = 24)	< .05

a) data presented on all those for whom it was available at time of assessment
b) Mann Whitney U-Test, one-tailed probability

> 3. When the experimental and control groups were subdivided further into those of high and low socio-economic status (SES), Kolb found that high SES experimental group boys gained 12 points in grade point average ($p<.05$) in the 18 months following the course. Low SES experimental and both high and low SES control boys had slight, but non-significantly higher grades at the end of 18 months.
>
> 4. For the boys who took the course, their scores on a "business game" (Litwin & Ciarlo, 1961) used to teach achievement strategies, correlated highly significantly with changes in grades. Also changes in n-Ach scores from the beginning to the end of the summer school correlated significantly with change in grades.

Kolb concluded that the principal effects were most pronounced for high SES boys who, after the summer, returned to environments which supported and encouraged the achievement values they had learned. Direct evidence that these values were learned in the course came from the significant correlations between the business game results and n-Ach change scores with changes in school grades.

It is reasonable to assume that the environmental demands must support personal changes in motivation in order for those changes to be maintained and become operative. However, in a large-scale study of achievement motivation training for Indian adolescents, Mehta (1967) found that the only significant increases on standardized tests of academic achievement occured for the bright, under-achieving, low SES boys in his study. Mehta interpreted this finding in exactly the same way as Kolb. Though contradictory in fact, both interpretations may be correct given the cultural differences between India and the U.S. In both cases these statistically significant results apply to very small numbers: Kolb, high SES, N = 11; Mehta,low SES, bright, under-achievers N = 4. Obviously, we must be cautious in the generalizations made from these data regarding the influence of social class environments.

There is another way to interpret Kolb's and Mehta's results. McClelland (1967) describes an n-Ach course given to potential high school drop outs. Of those students who took the full five day course (50% dropped out of the n-Ach course!), their subsequent gains in high school grades were significantly greater than a matched "no treatment" control group. More interesting, however, almost all of these boys cite serious work, career or school activities as the most important thing in their life. The matched "no treatment" control group boys give more short-term, pleasure-oriented responses to the same question. For both groups, many of the answers had little to do with school and a great deal to do with how they used their leisure time. This suggests that the results of n-Ach courses for adolescents may not always be reflected in school grades. It is also possible that social class backgrounds may help determine how and where increased n-Ach will manifest itself. In other words, the low SES experimental boys in Kolb's research may have benefitted from the course in ways and places he did not measure. At present there is continued research on these and related questions.

A PERSPECTIVE ON MOTIVE ACQUISITION RESEARCH

McClelland and co-workers have demonstrated that increasing n-Ach leads to greater entrepreneurship in business and academia. While this research answers the question stated by McClelland in the final chapter of The Achieving Society, it also raises new unanswered questions: What are the most effective methods of increasing motivation; not just achievement motivation, but any motive crucial to healthy, mature adult functioning? Are all the n-Ach course inputs equally important? Are there other methods not included in the course which are effective in strengthening motives? These questions indicate that the fundamental research problem has changed. It is no longer a question of whether n-Ach leads to entrepreneurship. Now it is a question of the relevance and effectiveness of this new change procedure for increasing any motive crucial to mature, adult functioning. Ambitious as this task may sound, it is not more challenging than each of the questions which inaugurated a new phase of this research in the last two decades: Can a scientific, objective measure of human motivation be developed? What is the nature and social origin of achievement motivation in cultures throughout history? What are the moral social consequences of achievement motivation? Can achievement motivation be increased? Each of these questions grew out of the previous research and required a new formulation of the problem.

Let us consider n-Ach training as a prototype educational course for developing human resources. We should examine the current status of this approach and the new unanswered questions it raises.

1. Methods of increasing n-Ach

Given the assumed impossibility of increasing adult n-Ach, McClelland was broadly eclectic in what he included in the training courses. Although he identified 12 different techniques for increasing motivation, there is still the possibility that this list is incomplete. For example, psychotherapists, from Freud to the present day have considered "Identification" as a principal means of personality formulation. Whether this entails the incorporation by five year olds of parental moral values, mimicking behavior of others, or adults emulating charismatic leaders, the identification process is an important source of change, and unspecified by McClelland.

From a different perspective, the 12 propositions are arbitrary. Although relatively discrete they can by categorized roughly into four main approaches to change. It might be possible, however, to define two or even one proposition which is more central, elegant and definitive. For example, Kagan (1967) has attempted a redefinition of learning theory. Kagan argues that the necessary and sufficient conditions for learning are a) contiguity of the two elements to be learned as a pair and b) attentional involvement. Methods of teaching consist of getting what is to be learned before the learner and, through any number of specific techniques, getting the learner to attend to what is presented. Kagan argues that "reinforcement" is effective because it gets attention. Similarly it could be argued that each of McClelland's twelve propositions are guidelines for getting attention, e.g., holding the course in retreat setting, promising great potential changes, playing games, playing psychologist by having course participants take and score their own TAT's. All of these procedures are in sharp contrast (thus attention getting) to normal experiences in daily life. The major point is that an elegant redefinition of the critical variable(s) in motive acquisition could lead to more effective, efficient change procedures.

Even if the number of postulated variables remains at 12 there is still the question of which variables or set of variables is producing the changes. To answer this question a series of n-Ach courses must be run, each including different techniques. The comparison of these different n-Ach courses would yield data on the differential impact of the techniques. At the present time this programmatic research is being conducted at the Harvard University Graduate School of Education. This series of courses means that there is a continuing dialogue between hypothesizing key change variables and the empirical data. This is another way of saying that a definitive statement of the critical variables, supported by hard data is not yet available.

2. Measures of change.

It is a curious contradiction that previous n-Ach research is replete with numerous different and creative criterion measures ranging from the number of buildings constructed in Pre-Incan Peru to the qualitative aspects of doodles. Yet, to date the principal measures of change resulting from n-Ach courses have been quite singular and unimaginative, e.g., salary increases, promotions, changes in grade point averages. A few other indices have been tried: objective measures of anxiety, Stanford Achievement Test scores, changes in TAT motive scores. In more recent and as yet unpublished research attempts have been made to remedy this situation by obtaining a wider range of criterion measures. In general, however, the problem of what criterion measures to obtain remains an exceptionally difficult one to answer. Standardized tests reflect "respondant" behavior, since they call for responses to standard stimuli. The best measures of achievement motivation are those which reflect "operant" behavior, behavior which the person initiates on his own in the absence of strong environmental achievement cues. Unless appropriate criterion measures of operant behavior are obtained, it is not possible to tell whether the course was successful. Also, besides objective behavior, other facets of a person's life may change as a result of motive acquisition courses: attitudes about fate, chance and luck, values, and perhaps even the strength of other motives. These internal changes, though less visible, are no less significant. Unfortunately there is no master list of critical variables to measure when evaluating the effects of change procedures. There is not even a systems approach which outlines how to decide what variables to measure in change research. Thus two interlocking questions must be answered before any definitive results can be presented: what are the critical "input" variables, and what are the critical "output" variables.

3. Courses vs. Context

N-Ach courses plant the germs of a new way of thinking and acting. McClelland often has referred to n-Ach as a mental virus. Yet, like a seed planted in stony soil, n-Ach probably will not develop without a conducive environment which encourages and supports this way of thinking. This conclusion is implicit in much of the n-Ach research. People with high n-Ach tend to choose executive or administrative situations in which entrepreneurship is rewarded. Kolb (1965) and Mehta (1967) both conclude that the normal life context is critical to the maintainance of n-Ach, strengthened through the courses. McClelland and Winter (1969) found that the n-Ach courses were effective only for those men who were "in charge"; a very special and conducive environment. Social psychologists, as a fundamental proposition of their discipline, look to the social context for the source of prevailing ideas and behavior.

If the goal is to discover the most effective methods of increasing motivation, the search must include an examination of the differences in normal life situations which strengthen or weaken different motives. For example, if we put people in business situations would it increase their n-Ach more effectively than short, intensive n-Ach courses given in retreat settings? Are n-Ach courses doubly effective when participants return to situations which are conducive to what they have learned? If students are given n-Ach courses, but go back to authoritarian teaching situations, will the strengthened drives for self-reliance and independence simply whither away? What are the critical environmental factors which foster or inhibit the development of achievement, affiliation and power motives?

4. What ought to be taught in schools.

In the decade from 1957 to 1967, from Sputnik to the riots, there was a national concern with curriculum improvement that resulted in new math, new science, new social studies and new paraphernalia to teach the new curricula more efficiently. Many of the men who participated in this upgrading of the traditional subject matters were stung by the assassinations, riots, violence and aggression they could not avoid seeing. These curriculum innovators now are wondering whether their work is beside the point. They are wondering about what ought to be taught in schools. This question is both a pragmatic one (what should the schools do about these major social problems?) and an ethical issue (what human values and human resources should be developed?). It is a question that cannot be answered alone by ministers, educational engineers, or the U.S. Office of Education, although all of these groups must be involved in the eventual application to "formal", "compulsory" education. The concern of these groups and individuals is not idle speculation. The behavioral technology and the human resource development courses already exist (Alschuler, 1968; Alschuler and Borton, 1968). N-Ach training is one such prototype course.

In this perspective n-Ach training and the related research raise many specific issues. Should n-Ach be taught in schools? To whom? How do you decide to whom the course is taught? Can empirical evidence contribute to the resolution of these ethical issues? These questions are current and no definitive, persuasive, procedural answers are available. It should be obvious, also that no one connected with the research on n-Ach or with developing methods of increasing motivation believes that their work can be considered "final" in any sense of that word.

With these unresolved issues in mind, and with the choice now in your hands, we invite you to consider in detail the possibility of your conducting an achievement motivation training program.

CHAPTER 3 BIBLIOGRAPHY

Alschuler, Alfred S. *Achievement Motivation Development Project; Working Paper Number 1: Psychological Education.* available from Achievement Motivation Development Project, Peabody House, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., 1968.

Alschuler, Alfred & Terry Borton. *A Bibliography on Affective Education, Psychological Education, The Eupsychian Network, Curriculum of Concerns, Personological Education, Syncetics, Personal Learning, etc.* available from Achievement Motivation Development Project, Peabody House, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass. 02138, 1968.

Aronson, E. "The Need for Achievement as Measured by Graphic Expression". In J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1958 pp. 249-265.

Atkinson, J.W. & D.C. McClelland. "The Projective Expression of Needs. II. The Effect of Different Intensities of Hunger Drive on Thematic Apperception". *J. Exp. Psychology*, 38 (1948) pp. 643-658.

Atkinson, J.W. & G.H. Litwin. "Achievement Motive and Test Anxiety Conceived as Motive to Approach Success and Motive to Avoid Failure". *J. Abnormal Social Psychology*, 53 (1956) pp. 361-366.

Atkinson, J.W., Editor. *Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1958.

Atkinson, J.W., Bastian, J.R., Earl, R.W., & G.H. Litwin. "The Achievement Motive, Goal-Setting, and Probability Preference". *J. Abnormal Social Psychology*, 60 (1960), pp. 27-36.

Atkinson, J.W. & N. Feather (Eds.) *A Theory of Achievement Motivation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1966.

Baker, Bruce. "Symptom Treatment and Symptom Substitution in Enuresis". unpublished Ph.D. thesis, Yale University, 1966.

Bandura, A. & R.H. Walters. *Social Learning and Personality Development*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.

Birney, R.C. "The Reliability of the Achievement Motive". *J. Abnormal Social Psychology*, 58 (1959) pp. 266-267.

Brown, N.O. *Hermes, the Thief*. Madison, Wisconsin: University of Wisconsin Press, 1942.

Brown, Roger. *Social Psychology*. New York: Free Press, 1965.

Burgess, E. "Personality Factors of Over and Underachievers in Engineering". *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 47 (1956) pp. 89-99.

Burris, R. *The Effect of Counseling on Achievement Motivation*. unpublished doctoral dissertation, Indiana University, 1958.

Child, I.L., Storm, T., & J. Vernoff. "Achievement Themes in Folk Tales Related to Socialization Practice". In J.W. Atkinson, (Ed.), *Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1958. pp. 479-492.

Clark, C. *The Conditions of Economic Progress*. (3rd edition) London: Macmillan Co., 1957.

Clayton, B.H. "The MBA and Small Business", Manufacturing Group IX. *Harvard Business School*, 1965.

Crockett, H.R., Jr. "The Achievement Motive and Differential Occupational Mobility in the United States". *American Sociological Review*, 27 (1962) pp. 191-204.

Eysenck, H.J., Editor. "The Effects of Psychotherapy". *Handbook of Abnormal Psychology*. Basic Books, Inc., 1961. pp. 697-725.

Feather, N.T. "Effects of Prior Success and Failure on Expectations of Success & Subsequent Performance". *J. Personality and Social Psychology* 3 (1966) pp. 287-298.

French, Elizabeth G. "Effects of the Interaction of Motivation and Feedback on Task Performance". In J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand, 1958. pp. 400-408.

Garrett, H.F. "A Review & Interpretation of Investigations of Factors Related to Scholastic Success in College of Arts and Sciences and Teachers Colleges". *Journal of Experimental Education*, 18 (1949) pp. 91-158.

Gebhart, G.G. & D.P. Hoyt. "Personality Needs of Under and Over Achieving Freshmen". *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 42 (1958) pp. 125-128.

Green, H.B. & R.H. Knapp. "Time Judgement, Aesthetic Preference and Need for Achievement". *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 58 (1959) pp. 140-142.

Kagan, J. "On the Need for Relativism". *American Psychologist*, 22 (2) (February, 1967) pp. 131-142.

Kagan, J. & H.A. Moss. "Stability and Validity of Achievement Fantasy". *Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology*, 58 (1959) pp. 357-364.

Klinger E. "Fantasy and Need Achievement as a Motivational Construct". *Psych. Bull.* 4 (1966) pp. 291-308.

Knapp, R.H. "Attitudes toward Time and Aesthetic Choice". *Journal of Social Psychology*, 56 (1962) pp. 79-87.

Knapp, R.H. & H.B. Green. "The Judgement of Music-filled Intervals and n-Achievement". *Journal of Social Psychology*, 54 (1961) pp. 263-267.

Kolb, David A. "An Achievement Motivation Training Program for Underachieving High School Boys". *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 2 (6) (1965) pp. 783-792.

Lasker, H. "Factors Affecting Responses to Achievement Motivation Training in India". unpublished honors thesis, Harvard University, 1966.

Levitt, E.E. "The Results of Psychotherapy with Children". *J. Consult. Psych.* 21 (1957) pp. 189-196.

Litwin G. & J. Aronoff. "Achievement Motivation Training and Executive Advancement". unpublished paper, Harvard University, School of Business Administration, Humphry House 22, Cambridge, Mass., 1966.

Litwin, G.H. & J.A. Ciarlo. *Achievement Motivation and Risk-taking in a Business Setting: Technical Report*. N.Y.: General Electric Company, Behavioral Research Service, 1961.

McClelland, D.C., with G.A. Friedman. "A Cross-Cultural Study of the Relationship between Child-Training Practices & Achievement Motivation Appearing in Folk Tales". In Swanson, G.E., Newcomb, T.M., & E.L. Hartley, (Eds.) *Readings in Social Psychology*. New York: holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1952. pp. 243-249.

McClelland, D.C., Atkinson, J.W., Clark, R.A. & E.L. Lowell. *The Achievement Motive*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, Inc., 1953.

McClelland, D.C. (Ed.). *Studies in Motivation*. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1955.

McClelland, D.C. "Risk-taking in Children with High and Low Need for Achievement". In J.W. Atkinson (Ed.), *Motives in Fantasy, Action, and Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1958. pp. 306-321.

McClelland, D.C. *The Achieving Society*. Princeton, N.J.: D. Van Nostrand Company, Inc., 1961.

McClelland, D.C. "Business Drive & National Achievement". reprint from *Harvard Business Review* (July-August, 1962) pp. 99-112.

McClelland, D.C. "Achievement Motivation Can be Developed". *Harvard Business Review*. (November-December, 1965).

McClelland, D.C. "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition". *American Psychologist*, 20 (5) (May, 1965) pp. 321-333.

McClelland, D.C. "Longitudinal Trends in the Relation of Thought to Action". *Journal of Consulting Psychology*, 3 (6) (1966) pp. 470-483.

McClelland, D.C. *Achievement Motivation for Potential High School Drop-outs: Working Paper #4*. available from Achievement Motivation Development Project, Peabody House, Harvard University, 13 Kirkland Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02138, 1968.

McClelland, D.C., with D.G. Winter. *Developing an Achieving Society*. New York: Free Press, 1969. (in press)

Mehta, T. "Level of n-Achievement in High School Boys". published by the National Institute of Education in India, 1967.

Mischel, W. "Delay of Gratification, Need for Achievement and Acquiescence in Another Culture". unpublished paper, Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass., 1960.

Morgan, James N. "The Achievement Motive & Economic Behavior". In Atkinson, J.W. & N. Feather (Eds.), *A Theory of Achievement Motivation*. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1966. pp. 205-230.

Moss, H.A. & J. Kagan. "Stability of Achievement and Recognition Seeking Behaviors from Early Childhood through Adulthood". J. Abnormal and Social Psychology, 62 (1961) pp. 504-513.

Murray, Henry A. Explorations in Personality. New York: Oxford University Press, 1938.

Ricks, D. & D. Epley. "Forsight and Hindsight in the TAT". paper read at the Eastern Psychological Association, New York. April, 1960.

Rosen, B.C. & R.G. D'Andrade. "The Psychosocial Origins of Achievement Motivation". Sociometry, 22 (1959) pp. 185-218.

Skolnick, A. "Motivational Imagery and Behavior Over 20 Years". Journal of Consulting Psychology, 30 (1966) pp. 463-478.

Uhlinger, C.A. & M.W. Stephens. "Relation of Achievement Motivation to Academic Achievement in Students of Superior Ability". Journal of Educational Psychology, 51 (1960) pp. 259-266.

Weber, M. The Protestant Ethic and the Spirit of Capitalism, (first edition, 1904), T. Parsons (translator), New York: Scribner, 1930.

Winterbottom, M.R. "The Relation of Childhood Training in Independence to Achievement Motivation". University of Michigan, Abstract in University Microfilms, Publication No. 5113, 297, 302, 305, 313.

Wolpe, J. "Experimental Neurosis as Learned Behavior". Brit. J. Psychology, 43 (1952) pp. 243-268.

Wolpe, J. Psychotherapy by Reciprocal Inhibition. California: Stanford University Press, 1958.

Wolpe, J. & A.A. Lazarus. Behavior Therapy Techniques. Oxford: Pergamon Press, 1967.

Chapter 4

CHAPTER 4

HOW TO GIVE AN n-ACH COURSE TO ADOLESCENTS

by Diane Tabor

This chapter integrates our experience teaching n-Ach to adolescents under the twelve guidelines for increasing motivation, presented by McClelland (1965). These guidelines, or propositions, were listed in Chapter 2, and were described briefly in Chapter 3. This chapter is a "how-to-do-it" manual and deals exclusively with how these guidelines are implemented in n-Ach courses. The twelve guidelines have been placed in four groups representing the four basic elements in increasing motivation: increasing the motive syndrome, increasing goal setting, increasing the cognitive supports and increasing the emotional supports. Within these four areas we have described enough variations and possibilities to allow teachers to be maximally free and creative in planning new courses.

I. INCREASING THE MOTIVE SYNDROME

Three of McClelland's propositions have been grouped together in a category we call MOTIVE SYNDROME. The basic factual material of the course derives from them, so perhaps the best approach is to state them as he did originally, then describe how they materialize into classroom goals and procedures.

> THE MORE THOROUGHLY AN INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPS AND CLEARLY CONCEPTUALIZES THE ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK DEFINING A MOTIVE, THE MORE LIKELY HE IS TO DEVELOP THE MOTIVE.
>
> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN LINK THE NEWLY DEVELOPED ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK TO RELATED ACTIONS, THE MORE THE CHANGE IN BOTH THOUGHT AND ACTION IS LIKELY TO OCCUR AND ENDURE.
>
> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN LINK A NEWLY CONCEPTUALIZED ASSOCIATION-ACTION COMPLEX (OR MOTIVE) TO EVENTS IN HIS EVERYDAY LIFE, THE MORE LIKELY THE MOTIVE COMPLEX IS TO INFLUENCE HIS THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS IN SITUATIONS OUTSIDE THE TRAINING EXPERIENCE.

The propositions themselves are not anything that the students need be concerned with, but they are worth considering separately and in detail here because they suggest teaching goals for the instructor, and learning goals for the course members. For example, a teacher who wants to help students fulfill the conditions described above has to present the thoughts and actions that make up the motive and also, encourage transfer to daily life. The propositions also imply quality or degree of learning--------------------------- "The more thoroughly an individual...conceptualizes... the more likely..." The way people are most likely to conceptualize something thoroughly is if the concept is presented to them in a language they can understand, in a way that proves involving, or emotional, or both.

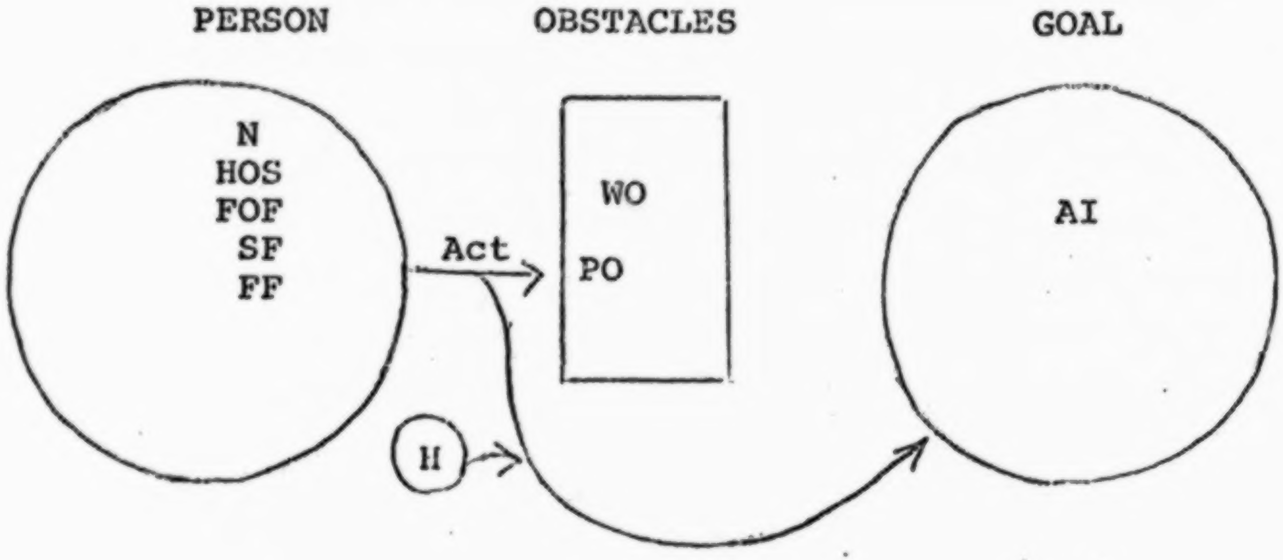
Many teachers would go beyond this and add that a learner rarely hangs on to information unless he discovers it himself,and finds it personally relevant. As often as possible, our approach has been inductive. We have aimed for discovery learning. We have de-jargonized the description of the motive, or at least greatly simplified it. For the class presentations which introduced basic concepts, as the achievement thoughts or the action strategies, we tried to plan something that had impact -- a game or project for all of the class, if possible, that encouraged and allowed emotional involvement . The style also involved noise and confusion sometimes, but , in terms of the learning goal, the style seemed right. If the learning exercises were varied and fun to participate in, the students would learn with little trouble. The emphasis on "doing" and having experiences during the course was integral to the learning goal for this course: to develop actions based on achievement thinking. It is possible to give students a test -- asking for definitions and descriptions of the thoughts and actions. That way we would know if they understood what the motive was and could identify and describe it. But we are more interested in what they are thinking and doing outside the classroom than in their ability to pass a test on n-Ach. Do they notice or seek out opportunities to put the motive to work? Do they spontaneously think about achievement? Do they handle failure better? Do they feel better about themselves? Do they set goals for themselves? If they don't -- regardless of how well they did on a test, the course isn't working. Thus, our present feeling is that an enjoyable and exciting learning experience, rather than one based on sheer thoroughness or absolute mastery criterion will be more likely to help us accomplish our goal.

A. THOUGHT CHARACTERISTICS

If we consider the three stated propositions one by one, we can explain more specifically what we have tried to do in the course and how we went about achieving our goals.

> THE MORE THOROUGHLY AN INDIVIDUAL DEVELOPS AND CLEARLY CONCEPTUALIZES THE ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK DEFINING A MOTIVE, THE MORE LIKELY HE IS TO DEVELOP THE MOTIVE.

The associative network is that group of thoughts that appeared on the original TAT's McClelland used to define the achievement motive. But in many cases, if a teacher presented his high school or junior high school students with the idea of "an associative network" they would think he was talking about a radio station. If he asked them to learn the "scoring system" by laboring over their TAT's, the total frustration in the room would probably cause smoke. What we have done instead is to talk about a pattern of thoughts and a way of goal setting that researchers have shown to be in the heads of people who succeed or who get past obstacles and failures, who have confidence. (Well... something like this...) We present this pattern schematically, and use simplified language and abbreviations to describe the parts of the "associative network," as you learned in your workshop.



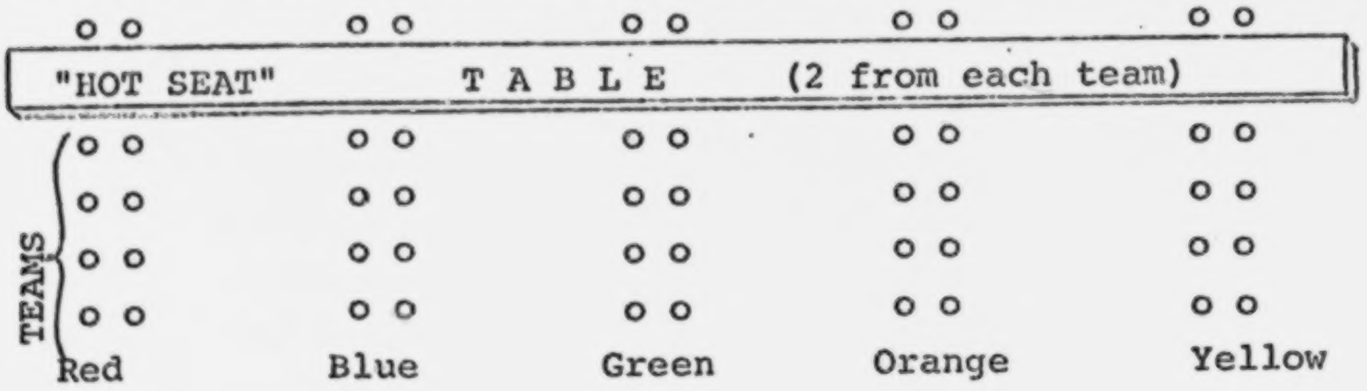
It would be possible to explain this information straight out and ask the kids to learn it by a certain date. While this method is easy on the teacher -- at first -- it's hard on the class because it presents "one more thing to be memorized". The task drags out, becomes painful, and squashes any incentive to think of the pattern at all. One group of teachers giving an experimental motivation course in Quincy, Mass. was especially anxious to circumvent this problem. They were working with 50 junior high school students at once, had only a short time to give the course, and wanted to make sure that the students had the motive well in hand and mind so they could get on past the basics. They invented a game, ingenious in itself, but all the more successful because an unsuspected flaw appeared, which turned out to work in their favor. The game was like a quiz show or "The Match Game" on television.

The N-Ach Match Game

In advance they prepared three packs of 3 x 5 index cards, like this: (Get a pencil, and we can illustrate better with your help).

1st pack	examples of AI and non AI sentences
2nd pack	examples of different kinds of AI (C , CS, LTI, UA)
3rd pack	examples of 10 parts of the scoring system

They began the class by having everyone, teachers and students, write out a story to one of the TAT pictures. Several of the teachers wrote on large blackboards, so that their stories were visible for discussion purposes. One teacher then gave a short lesson based on the theme that people tend to see and describe things according to their own particular point of view. In the process he explained achievement imagery and compared it to affiliation, power and task imagery. Since this was such a basic part of the course, and since there was more to know about it, he explained, they were going to play a game that would help them quickly identify achievement imagery. He divided the class into teams, and arranged the room this way:



Then...elaborate buzzer and time keeper, large scoreboard and scorekeeper, deck of cards and moderator, and they were all set. According to the rules of the game, the moderator would read the cards for round 1 to the team members occupying the hot seats. The two members from each team would confer together to decide if the illustration read contained an example of achievement imagery, or if it was something else -- in which case it was simply "NON-AI." They had 10 seconds to decide. Then the buzzer would ring, and one hot seat member from each team had to immediately hold up a large show card indicating AI or NON-AI as their answer: If they were right, they earned one point for their team. If they were right several times in a row, they earned extra points.

The second round was more complicated. New players took the hot seats and there was a net SET of show cards, one for each kind of achievement imagery goals to identify (CO, CS, LTI, UA).

The illustrations made possible multiple answers. An added feature appeared in the form of audience participation. Every now and then the buzzer would ring three times just before the answer was due, indicating a match item. Then, both the hot seat members and the audience part of the team would hold up answers, and if they matched exactly, the team could score double.

The third round was more elaborate yet. There were 10 show cards - one for each part of the thought pattern and a new twist in the form of challenge. Each member of the team had a card, one person held HOS, another held AI, another FF, etc. As the short story was read they would consult together as a group, decide how it should be scored, and the people holding those cards would then stand up at the next buzzer, which was timed to allow 30 seconds of consultation. If, when they stood up with their cards, another team felt one of those cards was wrong, they could challenge the answers. If they challenged correctly they would pick up a point for their team. If they challenged incorrectly, they lost a point from their team total.

It seemed as if the game would move right along, and provide a lively way to give all 50 students at once a chance to practice and learn the achievement thought pattern. What happened was that the game didn't move right along -- at least not smoothly. The teachers had made up the illustrations for the moderator's card pack rather hastily, (the examples were not clear cut) and items like this kept cropping up:

> A new local music group, called "Grandma's Rockers" were recently interviewed on a radio show. When

> asked about their immediate career goals, they responded, "We have just cut a new record which we hope will sell enough to clear $10,000 apiece for us for the year."

The buzzer would ring, the team would consult and decide, the buzzer would ring again, the cards would pop up, and the class would be in a squabble. "Yes, it is an achievement goal, because...." "No it isn't. They don't care if it is a good record or not. They don't care about the music." The moderator or scorekeeper would then have to step in and help everybody out by giving a little explanation about what money had to do with achievement goals. To say that the class was attentive would be putting it mildly.

Thus the controversy that the cards created turned out to be a great attention getting device for explanations that under ordinary circumstances the class might have tuned out. The game situation created a need to know. By the time the class had played the whole game (two class periods) just about everyone knew all the achievement thoughts thoroughly -- they could identify them and give examples. Then, with a minimum of explanation, they easily understood what a "goal-directed" pattern of thinking involved.

In a more general sense, the game helps fulfill a course goal that McClelland describes in his article "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition." Together with the diagram and a minimum of explanation it provides the class with "...a set or a carefully worked out associative network with appropriate words or labels to describe all its various aspects." (326) At the same time, playing the game reinforces learning and knowing the set --because it's fun and provides lots of practice without being boring. (And, we might add, the players experience part of the set while they are learning it.)

There are probably groups of students who are too blasé for this kind of game -- in that case, the teacher has to select a way to present the motive pattern that is most appropriate for his particular group. What he might borrow from the teaching method presented here is that it combines fun, excitement and activity with learning and practicing something potentially dry. It avoids any flavor of drudgery -- and rescues the teacher from cajoling or nagging and reminding the classes that "they are responsible for this material." A variety of other teaching suggestions in the appendix under "Thought Characteristics," include other games, exercises, programmed text chapter, etc.

B. ACTION STRATEGIES

THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN LINK THE NEWLY DEVELOPED ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK TO RELATED ACTIONS, THE MORE THE CHANGE IN BOTH THOUGHT AND ACTION IS LIKELY TO OCCUR AND ENDURE.

The related actions that we are talking about here are specifically:

1. moderate-risk goal setting
2. use of concrete feedback
3. taking personal responsibility
4. researching the environment

It isn't difficult to establish, with the class, how these behaviors relate to achievement goal-directed thinking. If an achievement goal embodies quality, improvement, excellent performance, aiming towards it means accepting a challenge, in fact, taking some risk. Setting goals and acting to move towards them shows initiative and taking responsibility for one's own life style. One doesn't anticipate obstacles without some researching of the environment. Expert help rarely taps one on the shoulder. A person takes responsibility for seeking it out.

It isn't difficult to establish the connection -- but it's easy to just not do it. In that case, the class would probably perceive the thought pattern and the action strategies as two separate things to know about.

The real goal for the teacher is to create a situation where course participants have goals to pursue, and in working towards them, actually behave in these ways we have described. In other words, if we want students to understand that certain behaviors accompany and result from thinking achievement thoughts, it seems sensible to let them have that experience. If we want him to know what it's like to use feedback in reaching a goal, we try to put him in a situation where he can do just that. Hence, you see our choice of something like the origami game, or the dart game as a training experience for this part of the course.

However, our aim isn't to turn out 30 to 40 expert dart players, or to increase people's speed at origami paper folding. We want people to play these games in order to act out or dramatize certain behaviors -- both the kind of behavior to which the particular game structure lends itself, and, if it should be different, the player's own typical behavior. The discussion during and after the game is the key, for then participants observe and talk about the fact that some ways of acting are more helpful than others in these situations. They discover the link between the achievement goal and the action strategies. They also make some discoveries about their own behavior. To show you how this actually works out in the classroom situation, here are the guidelines we use for the dart game when our course participants are adolescents.

DART GAME

The thought of 10 or 20 youngsters throwing darts during classtime naturally causes teachers to tremble. But, this game is worth the extra organization and agility it requires of teachers because it has so often proved itself as a super-effective teaching device.

PURPOSE:

The game creates a structure where students must set moderate risk goals and use feedback carefully in order to do well. The purpose of the game is simply to let each participant experience such a situation in a conscious way. Then, they discover for themselves that setting challenging, but reachable goals, and using feedback to improve performance increases chances for success. Moreover, playing the game establishes behavior patterns which the students can then discuss, and relate to other instances that involve goal setting and evaluating their own performance.

SET UP:

1. Number of Players:

   Eight to sixteen players -- so that there can be both individual and team competition.

2. Equipment: For every 8 students provide:

   a. 2 regulation dart boards with seven possible scores (100, 80, 60, 40, 30, 20, 10)

   b. 12 darts, at least

   c. large scoreboard or sheet, to be marked off as follows:

DARTS SCORE SHEET ROUND ______

Points: bid / result

Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	Total

3. Regulations:

   a. Darts are usually thrown from a distance of 12 feet, but, according to participants' general age, size, ability, etc. one might wish to modify this distance.

   b. The bull's-eye should be 4 feet 9 inches from the floor.

4. Recommended pupil/instructor ratio:

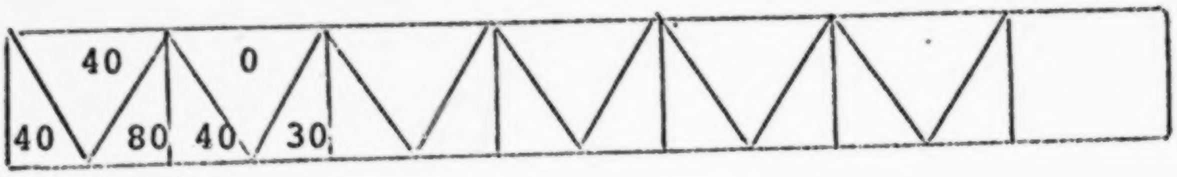
   One teacher for every 6-8 students. If there are 16 students, then we would recommend divid-the group, giving each teacher his own equipment and running two games.

ROUND ONE:

PROCEDURE:

The object of the game is to make as many points as possible in six throws of the darts. A player makes points by matching or bettering his bid. That is, before he throws each dart he estimates how close he will come to the bull's-eye, thus defining an area that will allow him to score. Then, he throws the dart, and if he lands within his target area he receives the number of points he bid. For example, if the bid was 40, and the dart landed in the ring marked 80, the player would receive 40 points -- the number bid. If the dart landed in the ring marked 30, he would not make his bid, and therefore would receive no points at all.

The score sheet would look like this for the two throws described above:



The procedure is the same for all six darts:

a. the player bids
b. scorekeeper records the bid
c. player throws
d. scorekeeper records the throw (where the dart landed) and the number of points made

We recommend two dart boards for each game so that one can serve as a practice board. This method keeps as many students as possible involved in the game at one time. One player starts off at the practice board. Then he watches the player who is up, then takes his own turn -- and usually wants to watch the next player. Other students can help keep score, collect the darts, kibbitz, etc. The first round proceeds best if the instructors just let each person take his turn, and don't interrupt with explanations. Besides, the teachers will be busy enough with the mechanics of the game so that they will have time for little else.

DISCUSSION AFTER ROUND ONE:

A few playing patterns appear with inevitable regularity, and can form starting points for discussion. One is that of the naturally skillful player who does well at the practice board, scoring 40 or better with nearly every throw. But he doesn't do as well when people are watching, and someone is keeping score. Oftentimes, such a player -- remembering his past glories -- sticks to a bid that is slightly too high. In so doing, he contributes to the existing pressure, and, in effect, works against himself. The result: the player scores poorly, even though his raw score may be better than that of other players who scored higher for the game. If the students don't bring up this point themselves, the teacher can introduce it by adding up the raw scores and achieved scores for the players, and inviting comments and conclusions.

Another frequent pattern occurs when for nervousness or lack of skill, someone does poorly from the start, and never really gets involved in what he is doing. Or so it seems, because he bids hastily, throws distractedly, and gets his turn over with as soon as possible. However, this kind of player may be involved intensely, because he usually feels painful emotions, such as humiliation, self-disgust, or feels left out. The kids will sometimes criticize him for not trying, and advise him not to bid low. But he usually needs feedback about how to throw the darts, not about how to bid. The teacher's effort with this student should be to help him choose the right feedback for this situation, i.e. help him achieve enough success at throwing the darts so that he stays interested in the game, and, realizes what feedback is, and that it works.

The discussion usually begins among the students while the game is going on, in the form of side comments. "Don't keep bidding 80, Bid 40." etc. The teacher can pick up on these remarks -- "Why did you want Hank to bid lower?" --and, in general, capitalize on the observations the students make themselves. As they suggest and describe moderate risk goal setting and using feedback, the teacher can label these ideas, and explain them in a little more detail. The students are usually quick to recognize behavior patterns in other players, and ironically, sometimes point out to another player some habit or stubbornness that keeps him from scoring well, when, in fact, they may do the same thing themselves. A student who consistently underbid will accuse a fellow player of being "chicken." If a player gets angry and bids and throws recklessly, the others will say: "The pressure's getting to him." "He's blowing his cool." Their perceptions don't keep them from doing the same thing, but they know.

A wise procedure for the teacher is to carry discussion after round one far enough to make the essential points about what feedback and moderate risk goal setting are. Accept comments about patterns and behavior the students notice in each other. Then, without pointing out errors or belaboring advice, go directly on to round two and let the students put some of their observations and experience to work.

ROUND TWO:

PROCEDURE:
Same as for round one

DISCUSSION FOR ROUND TWO:

The instructor should be ready to offer praise -- to comment on the performance of those who used feedback, and improved because of better playing or better bidding. With those students who consistently disregard feedback, fly off the handle, or shrug off their performance, the teacher will have to play it by ear, taking into account the person's temperament, the audience, and so on. However, here are a few suggestions and questions for those situations:

1. Let the person throw without bidding, and discuss the effect that having to bid has on performance.

2. Let that player bid for another player, while the latter throws the darts. If a player understands feedback and can interpret it for someone else, what makes it harder to apply that knowledge to one's self?

3. Or, do the opposite -- let some of the others bid for the player who ignores feedback. Then, compare which way he scores better.

4. Encourage everyone to talk about what creates pressure in a game like this. Often, the ones who explode or give up feel the most pressure from not living up to their own expectations.

5. If it feels right, ask the effect of drastically overbidding or underbidding. To bid the nearly impossible, the bull's-eye is a way of saying "Anything goes! I'm not to blame if I don't make it." To bid low,in disgust, instead of challenging one's self is also a way of saying "I quit." Both behaviors give up responsibility for performance.

ROUND THREE:

PROCEDURE:

Play the game as before, but this time, divide into teams of roughly even ability, and let the two teams compete.

DISCUSSION AFTER ROUND THREE:

When there is team competition the students will pressure fellow team mates to bid according to feedback, and moderate risk. So that the teacher will have to do little more than review the concepts after the round. The teacher's role, as before, is to accept the students spontaneous discussion and try to help them build on it. In particular --

1. Encourage them to relate this kind of game structure to other situations they may find themselves in -- situations in sports, in school, at work, and in hobbies.

2. Invite them to consider whether or not the way they behaved in this game was typical behavior for them. Did their way of acting help or hurt them? etc.

Once teachers have conducted the games, and discussed what happened with the students, they might wonder if they were "successful." "Did the point get across?" The criterion we have usually used -- both for the achievement thoughts and the action strategies -- is demonstration. Can the students make up an achievement story, including examples of all 10 thoughts? Can they move from the first situation where the action strategies were useful, into another situation, and use what they learned. Thus, a whole repertoire of materials would be at hand. Most students should be able to describe and talk about the motive, but we have found that some students who can never write a definition of the action strategies have no trouble using them, in our course, and outside of it.

Once the thoughts and actions have been presented, and a link established between them, the class has the basic material in hand. Or, to borrow from the more technical descriptions of what is going on, if the class so chooses, they have the use of an "enlarged associative network." Witness: (McClelland, "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition" p327)

> "THEORETICALLY, THE ACTION IS REPRESENTED IN THE ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK by what associations precede, accompany, and follow it. So including the acts in what is learned enlarges the associative network or the achievement construct to include action. Thus, the number of cues likely to trip off the n Achievement network is increased. In common sense terms, whenever he works he now evaluates what he is doing in achievement terms, and whenever he thinks about achievement he tends to think of its action consequences."

C. APPLICATION TO REAL LIFE

All the while basic material about the motive is presented, teachers can be working on the third proposition of this group: tying these thoughts and actions to appropriate contexts in the students own life situation.

> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN LINK A NEWLY CONCEPTUALIZED ASSOCIATION-ACTION COMPLEX (OR MOTIVE) TO EVENTS IN HIS EVERYDAY LIFE, THE MORE LIKELY THE MOTIVE COMPLEX IS TO INFLUENCE HIS THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS IN SITUATIONS *OUTSIDE THE TRAINING EXPERIENCE*.

Of the three propositions discussed in this section, this one is the most difficult to handle, because it assumes what is rarely the case; that teachers actually know something about the students' everyday life and are willing to encourage them to discuss it in class. Usually this part of the course is an opportunity for teachers to learn about the students' world. One approach into open-ended discussions of this type is through case studies, where the students can see that *n*-Ach is relevant to people like themselves in circumstances like their own. The Leo case study which follows, will give an idea of what we mean. But, if the instructors know their group, they can produce the best case materials by writing their own, and tailoring them to their particular group. And, if the students are willing to write up case materials, that in itself would fulfill the aim of this part of the course.

Leo

Leo had never seen his father, except for the picture of him in army uniform on his mother's dresser. Sometimes he would think about his father and what he must have been like. He knew he must have been strong, and was probably a fast runner.

Sometimes Leo would think about what they could have done together, and he would imagine the "Big Ball Game." In this game Leo was playing football with ten other guys against a team that was slaughtering them. The score was something like 72 to 0, and all his team wanted to do was throw long incomplete passes. Leo would be fed up with his team, mad at them for not practicing, and for not blocking and tackling right, for not showing any guts. Then his dad would run through the other team, and then block for Leo to do the same on the next play.

The score would slowly turn, and soon it would be 72 to 70. The other guys on his team were quitting with only a few minutes to play, because they were angry at Leo and his dad for hogging the ball. Then there were just the two of them against that other team of eleven, all of them almost grown men. Leo took the ball from center and threw a short pass to his dad, who was almost swarmed under by the other team, but not before he could toss a quick lateral to Leo, who went all the way for a touchdown and the ball game.

They would go home then to Ma, who was nice looking and always had something good cooked for them after each big game. They would eat and sing a little and talk about the game.

Leo enjoyed that kind of thinking. He would sometimes spend an entire afternoon letting his thoughts take him where they might, creating new worlds to conquer with his father. There were storms at sea and wild animal hunts, cave-exploring and narrow escapes from burning airplanes. At times he would tell himself that this wasn't a very good way to spend so much time, that he should be doing something about school or home or work, but even then he would return to the delicious thoughts of his dead father and the worlds that might have been.

The real world for Leo was not pleasant, but not as bad as it is for many others. His mother worked, but she had a good job and managed to support them well. They never were hungry. When they were together they sometimes had good times, sometimes miserable times. They argued only when she tried to run his life too much. He figured other mothers did that too, not just his own.

It was the feeling of loneliness that bothered him most; Sometimes he would start fights with other kids just so they would be with him and not ignoring him. He would do and say things in class that were purposely to make the teacher angry. If he had to think about what he wanted, he would usually end up with things on his list like "company" and "to be somebody." If he could be somebody, he wouldn't have to be lonely anymore.

There was that feeling he had that someday the doors would open for him.....the cards would come up right..... his ship would come in. There wasn't much you could do but wait for that time to come.

Leo had failed two grades of the first nine, so he was a little older than some of the kids in the tenth grade the year he entered Tech High. Sometimes this made him feel good, just to know he was older than the others, but then he would get a little depressed about it, thinking about how they would be younger than he when they graduated from high school.

It was during his tenth-grade year that two very important things happened to Leo. He tried out for the football team, and he was introduced to drugs.

After all the long thought sessions in which he played the big game, Leo knew he would be a natural at football. He had played in junior high a little, and now he was bigger and faster. It was just a matter of putting into practice all his dreams about how it should be done. His dreams now were more about his own greatness than his father's.

His high school football career lasted three days. On the first day he was sure he would be a star. When he wasn't put into the scrimmage on the second day, he was sure it was just a matter of time until the coaches discovered his abilities. At the end of the third day of practice, he was sure the coaches didn't like him and he would never get anywhere with them. So he quit.

This was when he began hanging around the corner near the pool hall a few blocks from the center of town. The guys there were too cool to be taken in by that football crap. They wore sharp clothes even in the daytime, and talked about how they "scored" with this chick or that one, in great detail.

Leo began to feel at home here. "The guys are great," he told his mother one evening while eating, "they know where it's at and how to get what they want."

"I don't think that's a good bunch for you to hang around with," his mother replied. "Seems to me there are other people you could spend some time with."

Leo knew what was coming, so he brought it up himself. "Next you're going to tell me to stay away from them altogether, I suppose, just like they said you would."

"You're damn right that's what I'm going to tell you, only I was trying to do it in a gentle way," she exploded, tears forming in her tired eyes.

"You can tell me that all you want, Ma, but it won't do any good. They're my friends, and they like me like I am. You never hear them picking at me or telling me I'm not going to amount to anything unless I buckle down. With them I already amount to something. I'm somebody there!"

He almost felt like apologizing for this outburst when he saw the effect it had on her. She slumped in her chair and closed her eyes, mumbling something he couldn't understand. He resisted the impulse and left the table, heading for the corner.

When he got there, the others knew something was wrong from the look on his face. "What's the matter, man?" one of them asked, "you down?"

"Yeh, I'm down, " Leo said. "I just had a fight with the old lady about hanging around with you guys. She was crying when I left, and I guess I still like her enough to be a little upset."

"The man is down and needs some 'up'," the tall guy, Jack, said. "here's just the little pill that'll give you some 'up' man. Take it fast and don't think about it."

Leo took the pill, not knowing what it was, but only that his friend Jack had given it to him. Not to take it would be a sign he didn't trust Jack, maybe, and Leo didn't want to take a chance on losing the guys.

His upset with his mother was soon forgotten and a good feeling began to take hold. He wasn't sad any longer and he didn't really care about her. Come to think of it, he didn't care much about anything.

"Did that little pill do this to me?" he asked Jack.

"Yeh, man. Ain't it groovy."

"I feel like I don't really care if the sun comes up tomorrow....that it's none of my business if it does."

Jack laughed. "That's the magic. Dr. Jack's magic green pills for people with troubles... wash'em all away.

Leo laughed too. He laughed a lot that night. Jack gave him another of the pills the next night, and the night after that. Then he told Leo he couldn't keep supplying him with them because they were costing him good money. Leo paid him for that one and asked him if he could buy more.

"I need that feeling every night, Jack. It's what makes the world go 'round. Man, I can't stand to think about what this world would be like without the happy pills."

Jack sold them to Leo in bunches now and Leo was soon taking three a day and was on a kind of all-day cloud. That was when Jack got him started on the 'downs,' the little pills that would bring him back off the cloud.

Within two months Leo needed both pills. He couldn't sleep or be calm without the barbiturates, and he dragged around during waking hours unless he had the "pep pills."

People began to notice the change in Leo. He lost weight and didn't seem to be interested in anything -- sports, school, girls, or his mother -- and he was spending a lot to time on the corner.

At the end of the school year he was arrested for peddling illegal drugs to kids at the junior high, and since he was under eighteen, turned over to juvenile authorities. He remained there until his eighteenth birthday at which time he was released. He has not returned home.

TEACHER'S COMMENTARY ON LEO

This case study has successfully been used with adolescent boys. Many of them could identify with Leo, either because they had used drugs or they knew of other boys who used drugs. Also, just about all of them had had fantasies of being a star and hero. Many had experienced loneliness. The appropriateness of this case study will depend on the group of students you are giving the n-ach course to.

Leo experienced two different kinds of fantasies: potentially "constructive" fantasies which he wanted to come true, (being a football hero) as well as "escapist" fantasies (the use of drugs to blot out the reality of failure). He dreamed of being a football star and wanted this dream to become a reality, but never did anything more than dream to achieve his goal.

A person with high need achievement uses the action strategies to make his constructive fantasies come true. If he fails, he holds on to reality in order to get feedback, so he can readjust his goals. By holding on to reality when he fails, rather than escaping by using drugs, his chances of having his fantasies come true becomes a moderate risk, rather than a high risk.

An important point to discuss from this is how one can "convert" fantasies to reality or use them to escape. Most adolescents have a strong need for belonging and friendships. Often friendships bolster their self-esteem - someone thinks they are worthwhile enough to be friendly with. Sometimes, as in Leo's case, his friendships helped his self-esteem, but got him into trouble. In his case, it would have been an advantage if his self-esteem was raised by his own ability to do and successfully accomplish some goal. Accomplishing his goal would have put him in contact with other like-minded boys, a situation which could foster the friendships he desired. Also if his self-esteem was raised by accomplishment, hopefully he could be more objective in finding friends who would really be "friends", that is, interested in his welfare.

Discussion questions can include the above points. Some sample questions which can be used follow:

1. What was Leo's goal?
   Why didn't Leo achieve his goal?
   How could he have used the action strategies to achieve his goal?
2. Were achievement goals or affiliation goals more important to Leo? Explain why?
   Which kind of goal would it be "better" for Leo to have? (One is not "better" than the other; it depends on an individual's values).
   How could joining the football team fulfill Leo's need for achievement as well as for affiliation?
3. How did Leo react to failure?
   How do you react to failure?
   How does a person with high need achievement react to failure?
   Which reaction to failure gives a person a better chance of succeeding on the next attempt?
4. There's a saying: "Where there's a will, there's a way." How are achievement thoughts and action strategies related to this saying?
   Was taking drugs a good "way" for Leo to achieve his goals? Explain.
5. How do you account for what happened to Leo? Why does his story turn out as it does?

6. If Leo had known about achievement motivation and the kinds of goal-setting thoughts and actions we've talked about, do you think he would have put his knowledge to use?
7. Sometimes people know what they should do to do better in a situation, but they don't act on their knowledge. Why not?
   Have you ever behaved that way? (Maybe in the darts game) Can you explain why?
   Why is it that other people do take advantage of such knowledge?

II. INCREASING COGNITIVE SUPPORTS

A. THE DEMANDS OF REALITY

When the motive is first presented in the course it is presented as a thing or phenomenon. For the students, it is probably as if someone showed them a strange new invention. "What's this?" they ask. "It's a ____________." the instructors answer. "See, here's how it works." Then the questions that logically follow go something like this:

1. "Why is it necessary --what's it good for?"
   "What are its limitations?"
2. "Do I want it for myself?"

The first of these questions is really asking about the usefulness of the achievement motive, and corresponds to this proposition:

> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL PERCEIVES THAT DEVELOPING A MOTIVE IS CONSISTENT WITH THE DEMANDS OF REALITY, AND REASON, THE MORE EDUCATIONAL ATTEMPTS DESIGNED TO DEVELOP THAT MOTIVE ARE LIKELY TO SUCCEED.

The usefulness of n Ach can be scored by the many different kinds of success with which it is linked. In business, for example, the achievement motive is crucial; And in sports -- and in community development. A carpenter, or any craftsman who takes pride in his work and seeks to do the best job he can, a research scientist working towards a cure for cancer -- all of these achieve high standards and results and a personal dignity that show the value of this particular motive. The course also should make it plain that many other worthwhile goals and pursuits do not depend heavily on achievement motivation and, in fact, are more compatible with other motives. For example, the dominant motive of a young social worker helping white and black students in a local youth group to understand each other and get along better would probably be affiliation motivation. An aspiring political leader must have an eye for power, and an imaginative concept of what power means in order to gain a position where he can wield influence. Then, he can create an arena for accomplishment of his ideas.

In other words, while the achievement motive does account for success in particular areas, it isn't a pat formula for success in every area. It provides no panacea. How useful one finds it, and how consistent with the demands of reality is bound to depend on one's personal goals and his situation --his particular reality. Moreover, acquiring the motive carries with it certain possible disadvantages. If we look closely at persons who have very high achievement motivation, we notice that their strong goal orientation can lead to overwork --or putting work before family and personal relationships. They frequently don't know how to relax (We might add though, that either affiliation or power motivation, in excessive doses, lose their best flavor.). These points and issues should be part of the course.

In short, a course about achievement motivation examines the kinds of occupations and situations where achievement behavior proves valuable. It also considers cases where the motive might be less valuable than another motive (such as affiliation, or power) or might be down right harmful. The instructors try to keep perspective, and to acknowledge that anybody has all of these motives to some extent; the question in the foreground are: Of what value is the achievement motive? Where is it most useful? What combination of motives is most useful?

Adults, who have experience playing many different roles, have a ready perspective with which to address that question. They can relate achievement to their job situation. They can see that it may or may not have much to do with the state of their marriage (My wife would respect me more if I achieved something concrete.).

But how does this proposition work into a course for high school students or, harder yet for sixth graders. How do they come to see n Ach as an asset in the real world? The problem for the course instructors, it seems to us, is to appreciate what reality looks like from where the student is sitting. Some of them may worry about getting into college with a scholarship -- finishing high school, making the basketball team, becoming a competent seamstress, organizing a rock and roll group. For these, it's fairly straightforward to draw a connection between those goals and this n Ach behavior.

One means of drawing that connection and at the same time creating a special type of course situation is to invite a guest to class, who has, in fact used achievement behavior to get where he is. The other requirements for the guest are that he come from the same reality the students know -- preferably the same school, the same kind of background, so that he speaks their language in every sense of that phrase. And he has to have made it. That is, he should be in a position they admire. Speakers that we have used in the past have included a judo expert, a coach, a boy who completed college on a scholarship while participating in sports and went on to play with the Boston Patriots --a school teacher and guidance counselor who had dropped out of school, and went back. All of these people talked easily to the kids, and they all spoke specifically of the kinds of goals they were after, the action taken towards the goal, their use of feedback, the obstacles they confronted, their feelings about progress, discouragement, etc. alluding to the scoring system, if thev could and if we had had time to describe it to them in advance.

All the students usually enjoy a visitor like this--- especially if he has a little (pizzaz) style. But while some of them will think -- "He's a regular person --- he really does use this stuff and it helps him....," other kids won't relate to anyone who has succeeded in standard channels. These students never did well at a sport. They've never gotten above a C or D in regular subjects -- and barely passed each year -- probably staying back once or twice. They don't think well enough of themselves to really believe they could accomplish anything like what they've heard about. So, yes, this is the way to get a better grade in school -- but I'm stupid. Or, so this guy plotted and planned and used feedback and got to be a coach -- but I hate sports."

Reality for these students isn't the same reality teachers and other students talk about. What do we do about them? How do we know who they are? How do we get in touch with their reality so we can establish a common ground for discussion? We have no solutions, but we can suggest two or three directions to pursue. One suggestion: small group work -- informal discussion to find out what concerns rest high with these particular students? What areas do exist that might be compatible with achievement motivation? If they are interested in racing cars -- informal talk could reveal that in that area they do already know a lot about pursuing an achievement goal. The instructor's tack might then be to have them consider if that same behavior could be transferred into another area of their lives.

A second approach rests on observation and hunch as much as on theory. Students who react to the course material as if it has nothing to do with them often see themselves as not the achieving type. Or perhaps, more accurately they simply may even be "hung up." A girl is worried about a misunderstanding with her boyfriend. A boy doesn't seem to get along with his father. Someone else is ashamed to bring friends home to a squabbly, often drunken reception. In such situations people may tend to judge themselves on the basis of how they think others regard them. If the boyfriend is mad or departing, the girl feels worth a little less. If the boy's point of view says his father is picking on him, the boy feels hostile but also demeaned. If parents aren't associations to be proud of, the child feels ashamed. These are feelings that everyone experiences, but if a young person defines his reality in the shadow of feelings like these he may think that striving for achievement goals, and aiming for excellence is irrelevant to his world, or just plain hopeless. Yet, the course does relate to the kinds of problems just described. The use of goal-setting behavior and the knowledge acquired in these courses help students feel more confident. It gives them more assurance in making decisions and acting on their own. At least, they say they feel this way. The sense of one's own identity as a capable, worthwhile person helps people survive trying or threatening situations, and grow in the process. What is actually being suggested here is that acquiring this motive may increase a person's sense of worth, and increase his confidence. In this regard, n-Ach is pertinent to interpersonal relationships, and personal problems , and can be presented to the students in this practical aspect.

B. IDEAL SELF-IMAGE

THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN PERCEIVE AND EXPERIENCE THE NEWLY CONCEPTUALIZED MOTIVE AS CONSISTENT WITH HIS IDEAL SELF IMAGE, THE MORE THE MOTIVE IS LIKELY TO INFLUENCE HIS FUTURE THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS.

So far, this course could be just a course about motivation -- a factual course with a psychological twist. At some point the course participants must go through the process of accepting or rejecting (reconciling) this behavior as part of their life style. Hence, the course must provide specific opportunities for self-study, as well as the warm, supportive atmosphere conducive to such study. "Do I want to be this way? What will I be like.....?"

Most of the courses for adults, and many of the courses for young people have started with a WHO AM I ? session, just as you did in your self-run workshop. The leader starts off, and provides guidance for the others by discussing what he wants out of life, some of the goals he has for himself, what holds him back, what helps him forward, all the while establishing a degree of openness. "The talk is not superficial because it is not common for people to speak openly about their motives in public, but, on the other hand, it does not deal with so-called 'depth' material in the sense of neurotic complaints or anxieties."* This exercise helps the small group define itself as a group because people sense what they have in common, build confidence in each other and become bolder about discussing themselves honestly, and facing the discrepancy between their real and ideal selves.

Teachers have often shied away from using this exercise with high school students (with younger students it definitely would not work). Either they don't have enough instructors to have ideal size groups (Any more than eight in a group is too large). Or they felt reluctant to get into something they doubt their competence to handle ("I've never had any experience like this before; what if they start telling me things I don't want to hear?"). Many admit to a secret fear that young people would respond to such a session with vast silence -- from shyness, lack of confidence, or because they didn't have those two adult abstractions -- real self-image and ideal self-image -- to juggle around the way adults did. Consequently, along the way several exercises have appeared, all intended to encourage one to look at himself honestly, conceive of what he would ideally like to be like -- and think about ways of drawing the two images into greater congruency. The Admiration Ladder, the Point of View exercise, done in connection with a film (Eye of the Beholder), and others, are some of these and are found in the appendix. The Future Planning Manual, described in the section on goal setting, also contributes to thinking about the ideal self. The TAT material, -- observations and records from the games in class are all personal data that can be skillfully worked into discussion about self and ideal self.

---

* McClelland, D.C., Developing the Achieving Society, Chapter 2, to be published in 1969, Free Press, N.Y.

Potentially this area can be one of the richest and most creative parts of the course. Consider what could be done with certain non-verbal exercises as a stimulus to group discussion and as a way for people to get to know each other. One example is a mirror exercise in which two people face each other and are told that they are looking at their image in the mirror. Each person must mirror the movements and expressions of the other, but no instructions are given as to who will lead. The pair must not speak to each other. Let this go on for a few minutes (3-5) and then ask them about their feelings. Were they working together on the procedure? How did it feel to be so closely related to another person? Was one person in control all of the time, or did the initiative shift from one to the other? Did one person try to take the initiative and get rebuffed? What does this say about our abilities to cooperate? To lead? To follow? There are literally hundreds of these exercises described in Improvisations for the Theater (Viola Spolin, Northwestern University Press, 1963) and can be used as the basis for meaningful personal discussion.

Or try an artistic rather than a verbal WHO AM I ? Photographs, newspaper fragments -- all kinds of things could collect into a meaningful personal collage, provided the instructor can give the assignment in an open way that says "Show who you are." No judgments or criticisms -- only acceptance would follow. If teachers were willing to get acquainted with dramatic techniques -- particularly improvisational techniques, or if they had already had theater experience -- try skits where the students choose historical or public figures that come closest to their secret or real selves -- and interact in these roles in improvisational skits. Or, what about tackling the idea of role head on. Our experience has been that approaches like these prove fascinating to a class. The group could start off by having a masquerade where people came as their secret self or as a person they would least to be like.

Live case studies could be another way to encourage a personal focus. By that we mean, creating a situation that dramatically illustrates a problem and then leaves it unresolved. Ask the students to step into the problem role and solve it as best they know how. The problem situation could be something straightforward as: "You are upset with the way some people in your math class behave since it interferes with your learning and you want to do something about it," or as free-form as "you are looking forward to high school (or junior high, or college) because....". Ask students to respond to the role play by talking about the kind of person that would best be able to handle that situation. How does he conform to the way they would like to be? How do they feel about him? What kind of motivation does he display?

All of these activities are "starters". Some of them are described in the appendix -- Some of them have not been tried -- but what will work the best is what you dream up spontaneously. The important criterion to keep in mind is that the activities share a purpose: to provide students opportunities to look honestly at the way they really are -- to think about how they want to be -- and to decide whether or not achievement or goal-oriented behavior will play a part in their ideal character or help them reach the ideal self-image they want to have and project.

C. CULTURAL VALUES

Not only must a successful course help students identify themselves as an "achieving type", but it must help students clarify how this concern and set of activities fits with the dominant cultural values.

> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL CAN PERCEIVE AND EXPERIENCE THE NEWLY CONCEPTUALIZED MOTIVE AS AN IMPROVEMENT ON THE PREVAILING CULTURAL VALUES, THE MORE THE MOTIVE IS LIKELY TO INFLUENCE HIS FUTURE THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS.

This is not as abstract as it sounds. It does not mean, for example, attempting to persuade the teeny tiny boppers and high school hippies that they should turn on to the Protestant Ethic. For these youngsters, who probably have low n-Ach, these days the Protestant Ethic is simply not where it's at. The concern with LOVE, and "flower power", black power and student power suggest that affiliation and power motives are dominant in their lives. Whether students are lovingly joining arms in a protest against society or joining fists in protest against the authorities (cops, candidates, recruiters, deans and principals), the chief concerns seem to be power and affiliation. If n-Ach is totally inconsistent with these concerns, the n-Ach course is less likely to be effective.

Admittedly it is difficult to discover ways of making this issue a lively discussion topic in school. We have tried a number of gimmiks that seem to foster relevant discussion. Teenagers' popular songs are filled with value considerations and stimulate talk among students. Unfortunately, it is often hard to get both keen involvement and serious discussion out of these "hits". Sometimes we have made up a brief questionnaire of value statements, had the students answer privately on a continuum from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree", tallied the responses for a class average and let them talk about how they answered in comparison to others. Here are a few examples: It is more important to do well than to be popular; I'd rather have fun in the present than worry all the time about what I'm going to do in the future. Another approach involves a discussion of students' heroes. A visit by one of them helps to make some of the value considerations real. Many of the techniques used to stimulate discussion of ideal self-image can be used for this discussion as well. These discussions usually do not attempt to change people's values. Instead the goals are to find out what those values are, and to explore the ways they are consistent and inconsistent with n-Ach values, self reliance, independence, concern with excellence.

III. GOAL SETTING

You have had some experience with concrete goal setting in the self-run workshop, and have had a chance to observe the process in operation in your own life. It is a rather complex method of bringing about personal change, however, and you have probably already experienced some resistance in yourself to continuing the process. It may seem inconvenient, or beside the point, or even too mechanical for your taste. If you are having trouble with your project, talk it out with some of the other group members and come to some way of changing it, either in terms of the goal or the method. Make sure that you are on the way toward a successful goal-setting project before you begin your course for the students. Students are more likely to believe what you say about goal setting, if you have some evidence that you are doing it yourself successfully.

This brings us to a group of three propositions that are grouped under the general heading of "goal setting." The first of these, should begin operating before the course begins.

> THE MORE REASONS AN INDIVIDUAL HAS IN ADVANCE TO BELIEVE THAT HE CAN, WILL, OR SHOULD DEVELOP A MOTIVE, THE MORE EDUCATIONAL ATTEMPTS DESIGNED TO DEVELOP THAT MOTIVE ARE LIKELY TO SUCCEED.

If you are assigning kids to the course, make sure they have a chance to talk with someone involved in the teaching and to refuse participation in the course before it starts. In the interview the teacher should explain something about the course, that it is the product of year of research by scientists at Harvard, The University of Michigan, and other Universities. The student could be told that he has been specifically chosen for this course because he seems to be the kind of student who wants to do better and can profit from this course. You might tell him of your expectations of what he can be. He will probably mentally compare this to what he thinks he is now. However, he should not be forced to take the course. The final decision is up to him.

Frequently in the past we have tried to instill expectations before the course begins by posters, school advertising and an inspirational speech by someone the students respect. One such speech is provided in the appendix.

Concern with setting goals comes before the course begins and towards the end of the course at which point students are encouraged to engage in a specific self-improvement project and to keep a record of their progress. This is based on two guidelines supported by a variety of empirical research.

> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL COMMITS HIMSELF TO ACHIEVING CONCRETE GOALS IN LIFE RELATED TO THE NEWLY FORMED MOTIVE, THE MORE THE MOTIVE IS LIKELY TO INFLUENCE HIS FUTURE THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS.
>
> THE MORE AN INDIVIDUAL KEEPS A RECORD OF HIS PROGRESS TOWARD ACHIEVING GOALS TO WHICH HE IS COMMITTED, THE MORE THE NEWLY FORMED MOTIVE IS LIKELY TO INFLUENCE HIS FUTURE THOUGHTS AND ACTIONS.

Goal setting and keeping track of progress towards those goals are what the person with high n-Ach does as a matter of course. He researches his environment and sets moderate-risk (challenging, but reachable) goals for himself and finds some means of getting concrete feedback on how well or how poorly he is doing. In n-Ach courses, as students begin to think about goals, they often realize that much of their schoolwork is a high-risk situation. They are graded on tests alone and much of their other work leaves them every little room for choice of method or quantity. This leaves basically two alternatives for attaining school-related goals:

1. Diagnoses of the problems (WO, PO) that stand in the way of classroom achievement and take steps to overcome them. Do I talk to others too much? What distracts me? Do I avoid homework for any reason? Am I just looking to get by in class? What would happen if I decided to be the best student in the class? Once the real problem has been pinned down (or what the student believes to be the real problem), concrete steps toward changing those behaviors can begin. If, for example, the student feels he spends too much time talking with others in class, he may work out a system of counting the number of times he does this each day with a grocery store clicker, and set a goal of, say, no more than two classroom conversations per day. If he clicks each time he talks to someone about something not related to the class work, he will begin to see how far he has to go and begin to move toward that goal.

2. Attempt to make schoolwork less of a high risk by translating long-range assignments and responsibilities into smaller, shorter more measurable units. Thus, the student who feels that his history course presents an insurmountable obstacle because there is just so much to learn for the exams, may be able to work out an arrangement with his teacher (H, +1) to break down extra reading assignments into discrete daily or weekly units, with his goal being reading and understanding of so many pages per day or week. If he keeps a graph with days on the horizontal line (X axis) and number of pages on the vertical line (Y axis), he will have an immediate feedback mechanism that allows him to see how well he is doing at all times.

Often students will feel that "school goals" have little meaning for them and will want to set goals for their outside activities. Any goal that represents a meaningful attempt at self-improvement is a legitimate one. Perhaps it is improved time in the half-mile run, or the expansion of a paper route, or completion of a self-made wardrobe. As long as they are committed to some standard of excellence, encourage it. They will develop more commitment to a goal that interests them than to one that is forced on them. There are numerous other ways of going about the formulation of goals, several of which you will find in the appendix.

The important thing to remember about this phase of your course is that it does not stop when the course does. Regular follow-up meetings of the groups should be scheduled, the first some two weeks after the course. A short-term goal set during the course should be talked about at the meeting, with the students sharing their difficulties and victories, and helping each other formulate long-term goals for a six-month period. A meeting for sharing again should be arranged for the end of that six-month period, with optional group meetings in the interim to feed back to each other the progress each student is making. The teacher-leader should attempt to collect as many of the graphs and charts as possible, not to criticize the projects, but to keep alive the feeling that this is a group of special experimental nature that has been chosen to show a particular effect: an increase in achievement motivation.

IV. INCREASING EMOTIONAL SUPPORTS

The atmosphere, or feeling we would like to create for this course goes hand in hand with the course goal. We want to go a step beyond the place where a student knows all about achievement motivation, to the point where he makes a choice about his own life. If he does decide he would like to behave in more achievement-oriented ways, the course should be able to help him behave in the way he wants to be. It should provide the means for him to internalize the achievement motive, if he chooses. As McClelland describes it...., "We insist that the only kind of change that can last or mean anything is what the person decides on and works out by himself, that we are there not to criticize his past behavior or direct his future choices, but to provide him with all sorts of informational emotional support that will help him in his self-confrontation. Since we recognize that self-study may be quite difficult and unsettling, we try to create an optimistic relaxed atmosphere in which the person is warmly encouraged in his efforts and given the opportunity for personal counseling if he asks for it."

Thus, one of the requirements for the course appears in the form of the following proposition:

> CHANGES IN MOTIVES ARE MORE LIKELY TO OCCUR IN AN INTERPERSONAL ATMOSPHERE IN WHICH THE INDIVIDUAL FEELS WARMLY BUT HONESTLY SUPPORTED AND RESPECTED BY OTHERS AS A PERSON CAPABLE OF GUIDING AND DIRECTING HIS OWN FUTURE BEHAVIOR.

This guideline makes sense in many ways. If the aim is to have a young person feel and be responsible for himself, one way to start is to stop telling him what to do. For a long time psychologists have known that a person must recognize and accept himself before it is possible for him to change. He can do that only in an atmosphere where others are accepting of him. Then, if he is to change, it must be because he wants to -- not because someone points out to him -- "Look at the way you operate in...don't you think you'd be better off if you acted like..." These conditions suggest that the teachers of this course should be as non-directive as possible. If the course instructors (leaders) are directive --if they systematically reward correct behavior ("good, you're using feedback") and punish incorrect behavior ("That's not a moderate risk bid for you.") the student will shape up in class, because it's easier to, than not to. But he didn't decide on that behavior himself, and there is no guarantee he will continue it when there is no one around giving orders. So, instead of directing, the teacher must do something more difficult. He must be a catalyst for self discovery and independent choice and decision making. This does not mean, however, that the leader is prohibited from giving information about n-Ach. A distinction must be made between information-giving and directing a person's life.

This approach has several implications for the teachers' role in the course -- for what he should try to do, and the way he should try to be in relation to the student's personal life. We suggest that what he should try to do is:

Be open rather than manipulative

a. Create situation after situation where the student has a chance to explore his own behavior.

b. Present the material about the motive, without insisting that people adopt it --rather, give it a chance to speak for itself -- give evidence of its potential value.

c. Serve as an expert who provides information and settings that help the student think about his goals and ideal self, and the way they might be related to the motive.

Be positive rather than negative or critical

d. Offer praise and encouragement -- not just to a few but to all individually.

e. Confront conflicts, arguments, disagreements, in an honest way. Listen to all sides. Try to resolve the situation collaboratively. Don't dismiss them or shut them off.

f. If a student indicates he wants to leave--either through several absences, obstreperous behavior, or by saying so--let him. That is his choice. Let him come back too, if he wants to.

Be a real person

g. Participate in the course, along with the students. Present yourself as a human being, like them, who wants to know more about himself and to fulfill himself, becoming the most he can be--someone with weaknesses and strengths.

h. Converse with the students--share jokes, laughter and talk, rather than lecture, point out, command, etc.

i. Relax--don't keep everyone on an airport type schedule.

j. Get feedback about the course from the students.

Granted, these suggestions sound idealistic. As one teacher put it, "To be so open is to have a hole in your head. They will walk all over you!" A more accurate way of describing what happens is that students, if they are not used to such an atmosphere, don't know quite how to behave in it. They might be too boisterous, or test this new kind of relationship with teachers by seeing how far they can go. As a general rule, while the teacher aspires to be non-directive about the material and doesn't use his role to force it on anyone, he can and should keep enough order in the teaching setting so learning and self-study take place. But he shouldn't be at the students or have to nag. If someone is continually obstructive he should be given the choice of leaving, or staying, an approach more in line with course goals. After all, it is voluntary. If the group can successfully work through the first few days of exploring this new way of learning and relating, then things settle down into their own kind of routine and go along smoothly.

Two conditions help the students and teachers make that transition. One condition is the teachers' attitude; both about students' behavior and students' possibility for change. As the old saying goes, "Expect trouble, and you'll get it." The opposite way of thinking works too. Once, during a course, when some of the faculty were mulling over what to do if students came late, or if they didn't come at all, or if they slipped into the johns and started smoking -- one teacher advised, "We have so much else to plan, let's handle those situations when they happen, if they happen at all." The teachers created a frame of mind that assumed people would be on time -- would participate, would be considerate of each other, would think well of themselves. When such an attitude is sincere, and when the teachers, as participants in the course, live up to it themselves, the attitude is communicated to the students. The teachers can't just slap the kid on the back and say "Be an achiever", and duck out the side door themselves for coffee and cigarettes.

Similarly, if the teachers doubt that the students they are working with can ever "guide and direct" their own behavior--doubt that they will ever want to change or be able to change, these doubts will be subtly communicated to the students, even if it is never voiced, and they will become self-fulfilling. It will prevent change. If teachers believe students can change, they make it more likely. Research shows that the parents of boys with high achievement motivation set high standards for their children, expect early self-reliance and at the same time are warm and accepting. In other words, a warm, supportive atmosphere coupled with high expectations about behavior and setting a good example get the best results.

The second condition is the ratio of instructors to students. Ideally, there should be about one instructor for a group of eight students --making warmth and attention more personal and individual --so that everyone will have a chance to talk and participate. Needless to say, if this ratio is accomplished, teachers can be optimistic as discipline problems rarely arise. In fact, it helps if standing groups of 5-8 students and one instructor can work as a team and get to know each other fairly well. If an actual group is formed, people dare to speak out, are more willing to help each other, do feel supported and feel part of what is happening. This also establishes a kind of friendly rivalry among teams and enables flexibility, because different teams can combine, compare inventions and accomplishments.

> CHANGES IN MOTIVES ARE MORE LIKELY TO OCCUR THE MORE THE SETTING DRAMATIZES THE IMPORTANCE OF SELF STUDY AND LIFTS IT OUT OF THE ROUTINE OF EVERYDAY LIFE (McClelland adds, in his new book) THEREBY CREATING AN IN-GROUP FEELING AMONG THE PARTICIPANTS.

In the original courses that were given to adults, and in the early courses given to high school boys, the dramatic setting conducive to self-study meant a kind of retreat. A group of instructors and course participants went away together to a place such as a camp or other setting in the country. It was private and people could be both indoors and out of doors. The advantages were obvious.

First of all, the contrast to everyday routine would heighten and emphasize this experience as a special one. Secondly, separation enhances not just concentration, but immersion in what is to be learned, making thorough learning more likely. Group members were all there for one purpose and could spend their time without distracting self-concious associations, outside appointments, interruptions. They learned about the motive, evaluated it, engaged in self-study, and built up a reference group in an enjoyable positive way. Separation and short intense style courses also increase the impact.

Most schools can not afford to send off groups of 25 students, with three instructors or more, for a pleasant stay in the country. The problem, therefore is how can the school within its own structure, create a setting that dramatizes the importance of self-study and lifts it out of the rountine of everyday life. We have tried two or three different methods, depending on what we could talk a school into trying -- and have come to feel that some situations work better than others. We have tried giving the course in a standard classroom, to a group of 24 girls and boys of low to average ability, two times a week for one semester, during a regularly scheduled double period that amounted to a time of one and one half hours. We did have three teachers, and could divide into small groups. However, the arrangement was not satisfactory for two reasons in particular. One -- although the pupil-teacher ratio was good, the school was so crowded that we were confined to that one regular-size classroom and could not hold three discussions at once, or run two or three training procedures at once. We had no flexibility. Second-- the spacing of the periods worked against continuity and impact. From one meeting to the next the excitement we might generate, the ideas the kids would be thinking about would get watered down by all that intervened. Then, continuing for so many weeks dragged out the course too much. And there were other factors such as, our warm and supportive atmosphere, which students entered from rather authoritarian classrooms, so that they interpreted our behavior as lax. We never did get a real group understanding because we didn't have successive days to work on it. We became just another course, sandwiched between lunch and business mathematics. After this experience, we planned with an eye to recreating the specific advantages of the retreat setting: separateness, continuity, small reference group formation, casual atmosphere and setting.

The next time we worked with a group of fifty 9th grade students at a time, and eight to ten teachers. Our separateness, and our "in-group" feeling, and the drama of our setting were achieved nicely when we all agreed to come to schoolan hour early in the morning-- so we could have peace and quiet and a huge home economics room to ourselves for an hour and a half. There is nothing quite like walking through the snow in the morning darkness or driving the turnpike from Cambridge to Quincy, Mass. at 6:30 in the morning to make you wonder about yourself-- dramatically. The"dawn patrol", as it came to be called, arrived at 7:30 every morning for three weeks in a row-- spent 15 minutes to a half hour chatting over cocoa, coffee and donuts, and then began "class". Sometimes there was a group presentation-- a guest speaker such as an alumnus who now played with a professional football team, or a film. But more often, the time was spent working in small groups. Twelve students and two teachers--or 6-8 students and one teacher. There were standing teams--sometimes the team worked on a project, game exercise or role play together. But since several days of the course left the students free to choose their own activities, they often grouped themselves according to interests.

The room had movable tables--some easy chairs, and was big enough to accompany all of us at once, comfortably. Because we were there before school, we could simply move into another room if we wanted privacy or a place for separate activities.

These kinds of things helped us create a successful special atmosphere:

1. A time removed from the school day (before, while energy was fresh).
2. A comfortable room with movable furniture, some lounge chairs.
3. A good teacher-pupil ratio-small group formation in the form of teams.
4. A varied schedule that included small group activities, group presentations, open time, and choices--variety of materials to work with.
5. Refreshments--casualness.
6. And yet, a little bit of a hardship atmosphere--here we are, all together, in the early morning.......
7. A special relationship with teachers.
8. An estoeric subject.
9. The knowledge that the rest of the school was curious, interested in the project.
10. A sense of prestige; "this is an experiment--first group of-- teach ourselves, etc., book about it--two-year follow up."

These particular ingredients helped us achieve a setting right for the particular school and for the particular age group and students/teachers we had. Every course will have to work these issues out for itself. The appendix includes a unit used with fifth graders in a ghetto school in Harrisburg, Pa., which shows how they adapted the idea we're talking about for their situation. One final caution is that it is possible to work so hard on the atmosphere and setting for the course that the end creation is too like a circus or social club, and the purpose of the setting gets lost.

CHANGES IN MOTIVES ARE MORE LIKELY TO OCCUR AND PERSIST IF THE NEW MOTIVE IS A SIGN OF MEMBERSHIP IN A NEW REFERENCE GROUP.

The key here is that the reference group must be one that the student wants-- or more accurately-- is proud to be in. One of the very first courses given to high school students recruited from among 10th grade boys the school had tabbed "seat warmers"--boys about to drop out or to flunk out, or have to repeat a year. The course had a complete and experienced staff of instructors (clinical psychologists, teachers and counselors from the high school) and was held in a retreat setting. When the boys arrived they looked around them and identified the group as a "bunch of losers." They quickly decided that they had been gathered together because "We're a bunch of kooks and they want to psych us out." Needless to say, the course fell apart. This tends to indicate that a course has a better chance of succeeding if students feel it is heterogeneous--including some bright, active students. It does not work to have all low performance students, or all students tabbed "discipline problems", or, to have a split group--half noted for being the cream who already are a reference group for themselves, and half who see themselves as outside that group. This could make new reference group formation difficult. Another situation to avoid might be that of a few rebels in what they would consider a group of squares. The easiest way to avoid this is to draw from several different groups in the school.

If the group from the start is one that hasn't got much chance of ever finding common ground, then certain members of it will be at a double disadvantage. That is, for some students, to develop this motive and to say that there are" 'straight' goals I want to pursue", is to cut themselves off from the group of friends that did provide security and friendship for them. If the new group isn't one that is open enough to accept him as a person, then in effect, the course leaves him stranded. Even though it might be temporary, that is a frightening experience for anybody. This is not to forget that developing the motive will help him have the self-confidence to seek out goals he wishes to pursue, but such changes are difficult for anyone, especially for high school students.

To view this proposition in a more technical sense; the special setting, the subject matter, with all its new and unusual activities, helps define this experiment as a group apart, with something special in common. The hardship element in the case of Qunicy, also applied; where the course people after looking back, could not believe that they actually had come to school that early or for that many days in a row, and had done so much in so little time. The students were added to the reference group the teachers had formed when the teachers had taken the course together.

Another important factor in making this group feel special was what they called their "teach-in". They invited members of the school committee (administration people, the curriculum planner, newspaper reporters), and taught them a two-hour mini course in achievement motivation which was featured in an illustrated article in the paper.

A panoramic view of the morning would have shown a shy, chubby girl answering the questions of a metropolitan daily education editor with the elan that comes from a thorough knowledge of an esoteric subject....a boy who had just returned from a week's disciplinary suspension from school teaching the Superintendent of Schools how to go about the process of setting goals ("Now, when you decided to take the job of superintendent, you probably said to yourself, 'I wonder if I'll be good enough to do the job'. That's what we call FOF")......Another boy, whose IQ is on the school records as 87, teaching a PhD in clinical psychology how to score a psychological projective test (Test of Imagination), pausing to make sure the good doctor understood the fine points of motive imagery before moving on to the next point. It was altogether a most unusual scene to stumble upon in a school setting. The "teach-in" involved a rather large risk in the minds of the teachers giving the course. "If they lay an egg with all those reporters and officials here, this whole program will be a flop," was often said and more often thought. They realized that they had to believe in the kids, however, and allow them to take their own risks. The result was beautiful.

As part of the research after the course, we have kept up with the participants through intermittent interviews and collection of data. The idea of a continuing reference group in any form other than the abstract is more difficult to conceive for students and young people than for, say, businessmen in India, who after they took the course collaborated in business ventures. Many of the students from the course made and continued new friendships, and have this experience in common. We strongly recommend gathering the group occasionally in the future for a goal-setting project meeting and to reintroduce and reinforce self-study and the use of achievement motivation.

Now that you have comprehended the background material, experienced a self-conducted n-Ach course and read about how to run an n-Ach course for students, you still may feel unprepared to teach an n-Ach course. In order to reduce your feeling of risk somewhat, we are including an extensive appendix with a variety of course units described in detail. We have included also several course outlines with complete lesson plans and comments. Our goal in writing this manual and providing the appendix was to make it easier for you to give an n-Ach course (obviously), but to make it difficult for you to use a complete, programmed set of inflexible exercises. Each group is different and requires special adaptations that only you can make. Further, we believe that if you invest the energy to be innovative in creating new course units, you will feel a greater sense of ownership and ability to give a course. Our experience has been clear on this point: When teachers create new course inputs they truly master the material,teach the course better.

So, we invite you to browse through the appendices, and hope your students will profit from the successful and unique n-Ach courses you give.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

McClelland, David C. "Toward a Theory of Motive Acquisition," American Psychologist. 20(5) (May, 1965) pp. 321-333.

Spolin, Viola. Improvisation for the Theater. Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, (1963).